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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

EDITED BY

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

December, 1918

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PUBLISHED AT EASTON, PA.

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW PUBLISHING CO.,
EASTON, PA., AND NEW YORK CITY

AGENTS

PARIS: J. Terquem & Co.

LONDON: P. S. King & Son, Ltd., Orchard House, 2 and 4 Great Smith Street, Westminster

(Copyright, 1918, by EDUCATIONAL REVIEW PUBLISHING CO.)

Entered at the Post-office at Easton, Pa. as Second-class Matter

Published Monthly except July and August

Vol. 56, No. 5
Whole No. 280

35c. }
1s. 8d. } a copy

\$3.00 } a year
14s. 6d. } (10 Nos.)

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Manuscripts intended for publication should be addressed to the Editor,
and stamps for return enclosed. Correspondence relating to reprints,
special editions, advertising, subscriptions and remittances, should be
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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

DECEMBER, 1918

I

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN ENGLAND

By the enactment on August 8 of the Fisher Education Bill the first installment has been made towards the realization of the program of social and economic reconstruction that is to follow the war in England. For the reform of the English educational system, and of the Scottish system which is being provided for separately, is but part of the larger task that has been entrusted to such bodies as the Ministry of Reconstruction or the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. Without the sound foundations laid in the earlier years of school life any recommendations that such bodies may make on adult education, public health, physical training, unemployment, juvenile employment and apprenticeship, or cooperation between science and industry would inevitably remain nothing more than pious hopes. Educational reform in England today is also inevitably associated with the recent extension of the franchise and indirectly will have some bearing on the recommendations of the Whitley Commission. Nor can the Act be considered apart from the administrative changes already made by the Board of Education, such as the regulations for advanced courses and examinations in secondary schools, or apart from departmental reports such as those on salaries for elementary and secondary school teachers, on the teaching of modern languages, or on the position of natural science in the schools. The quickened recognition

by the public of the essential function of education in national life must also be taken into account as one of the assets for the future. Public interest and support have acquired an impetus from the conditions and realizations arising out of the war that has made possible such educational progress within one year as could in normal times not have been achieved in less than a generation. The sacrifices and public burdens undertaken by teachers of all grades thruout the country have given them a repute and status that they have not hitherto enjoyed and that will result in substantial improvement of their material position. The outlook of the local educational authorities has also been deeply affected by the urgent necessity of giving much closer attention than ever before to educational problems under adverse conditions. Finally, altho little is as yet known about its effects, the educational activities undertaken with the army will undoubtedly have a healthy reaction on that public opinion without which educational progress is impossible.

It is too often forgotten in recent discussions of English education that the train for "a comprehensive and progressive improvement of the educational system" had already been laid before the war in the budget speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer on May 4, 1914. The Act accordingly does not constitute a revolution in English education. It represents the normal development whose evolution has been hastened by the favorable conditions already described. After the satisfactory reception of the estimates for the Board of Education, introduced by Mr. Fisher in April, 1917, and calling for an increase of more than \$19,000,000 over the estimates of the previous financial year, the passage of an educational bill to meet the new demands, as formulated by numerous education authorities and associations of lay and professional men and women, was a foregone conclusion. Mr. Fisher's first essay, however, with a bill which he introduced in August, 1917, was from the first condemned to failure because it exceeded these suggestions and recommendations and because it was sus-

pected as an attempt to conceal a scheme for centralized control over education behind a large number of measures otherwise acceptable. While the country is ready and willing to surrender its rights to the national government in the interests of the conduct of the war, it did not show itself so amenable in accepting what might prove to be a bureaucratic and centralized system of educational administration for all time. The education authorities were up in arms against the administrative measures and indicated in no uncertain terms their refusal to countenance any education bill at all that threatened their liberties or might interfere with local initiative and variety. The contested clauses have already been dealt with in the issue of the *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW* for March, 1918. In every case the administrative discretion of the Board of Education has been surrounded by limitations. Clause 4 of the first bill which gave the Board the final word in the approval or rejection of schemes submitted by the local education authorities now becomes Clause 5 and a definite procedure has been established in cases of conflict between a local education authority and the Board, with final power vested in Parliament. The old Clause 5, which provided for the combination of local areas into provincial associations in accordance with Lord Haldane's proposals, has been dropped altogether, and the same fate met the old Clause 29, which would have permitted the Board to transfer the smaller to larger educational areas. Clause 38 in the original bill also disappears and with it any danger that the Board would become the final authority in cases of dispute with local authorities. Finally, the old Clause 40 now becomes Clause 44 and the indefinite provisions for national grants to education are replaced by a definite undertaking that these shall amount to not less than one-half of the local expenditure. A few additions and amendments have been made, in each case extending rather than limiting the powers of local authorities.

The general structure of the educational system remains the same as under the provisions of the Education Act of

1902, that is, the responsible authorities for elementary and higher education consist of counties and county borough councils, and for elementary education, of the councils of non-county boroughs and urban districts. The relation of the Board of Education to the local education authorities continues as hitherto with the broad exception that it now has the power of approving or rejecting schemes "for the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education" that may be submitted to it by the local education authorities; in cases of conflict between the Board and a local authority the Act provides for a conference or public inquiry, and in the last resort the submission of a report to Parliament with reasons for any action taken by the Board. The grants from the national exchequer have been consolidated and will in the future be dependent on the approval by the Board of such progressive and comprehensive schemes of education in a local area. The Act abolishes the fee, the aid and the small population grants and provides that the consolidated grant shall be not less than one-half of the expenditure of a local authority. By this means the Board will have the power of requiring, among other things, the efficient administration of school attendance, the satisfactory provision of elementary, continuation and secondary schools, the maintenance of adequate and suitable teaching staffs, and the provision of adequate systems of medical inspection and treatment. For the first time in the history of English education the national authorities are placed by the Act in a position to secure full information as to the provision of education thruout the country, the responsibility of furnishing such information being placed upon the schools. Under other provisions the Board is empowered on request to inspect schools not already on its grant list and with local education authorities to inspect schools that desire to qualify as efficient for the purposes of securing exemptions from attendance at public elementary or continuation schools. The effect of these measures combined with the indirect influence of the qualifications required of teachers for registration with the Teach

ers Registration Council will have an incalculable effect in raising the standards of private schools, and at the same time safeguarding their status. Room will thus be found under the national system for public and private schools, schools established and maintained entirely by the public authorities and non-provided schools or those established by denominational bodies but maintained out of public funds. Such a scheme under the wise direction and advice of the Board of Education will secure that variety and initiative on which the English system is founded, while the new method of allocating grants will furnish the necessary encouragement for the rapid expansion of the system. It is significant that for the first time in English history the Act speaks of the development of a national system of public education. By bringing the private schools into more effective relations with public education England will present an example of a national system in which public and private effort cooperate to the larger end.

The responsibility for "the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education" is entrusted to the county authorities in all matters pertaining to elementary, secondary and higher education. The non-county boroughs and the urban districts have the same responsibility only in relation to elementary education, which is now considerably expanded in conception. Provision is made, however, for cooperation between the two types of authorities, and also for the federation of any two educational areas for cooperative purposes under joint bodies of managers, including teachers and representatives of universities. Under the extended powers of the Act education authorities now become the responsible authorities for the administration of the Employment of Children Act, 1903, the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, and the Childrens' Act, 1908. Further, for the promotion of physical and social training education authorities may maintain and equip holiday camps, centres for recreation and physical training, playing fields, school baths and swimming baths and other facilities in addition to the system of medical inspection and treatment.

Finally, the limit hitherto imposed on the amount that could be raised by county authorities for secondary and higher education is removed. The duty is imposed on local education authorities to draft schemes for their areas after due consideration of existing facilities, public or private, and of the possible advantages of cooperation. Since the new system of grants will be based on the adequacy of a scheme as a whole, it will effectually check the development of schemes that are not comprehensive. Here again the Board of Education will act in an advisory capacity, and the responsibility for the development of local initiative and progress is placed on the local education authorities and so on the public in whose interests schools are maintained. The withholding of grants and the power of the Board to conduct public inquiries, the reports of which may be laid before Parliament, are effective measures for dealing with recalcitrant authorities.

While the improvement of the administrative organization of education constitutes one of the purposes of the Act, it is not in any way its main purpose. Primarily the Act represents the new democracy rising to a recognition of the function of education in preparing healthy, intelligent and responsible citizens. The advancement of the physical welfare of the nation with the promotion of educational opportunities constitutes the chief objects of the Act. As at the time of the South African War, so at this crisis, recruiting of soldiers has revealed the great extent of physical deficiencies in the country; at the same time a better chance for survival is to be furnished to every child in order to repair the physical wastage of the war. An already excellent system of school medical inspection and a developing system of medical treatment are extended by the Act. In the schools for mothers, training is given in prenatal care and the care of infant children. From the age of two to five or six, children may attend nursery schools where attention will be devoted primarily to their "health, nourishment and physical welfare." In the elementary schools the existing regulations for school medical inspection and treatment will apply,

with the probability that more effective provision of the latter will be required under the procedure by schemes. By the provisions of the new Act local education authorities are empowered to extend this system of medical inspection and treatment to pupils in secondary and continuation schools maintained by them and even in schools not aided by them, if so requested. Since the National Insurance Act applies to employed persons from the age of sixteen up, the great majority of citizens in England and Wales will be under an effective system of medical supervision thruout their lives. As part of the general health program, local authorities are also required to ascertain the number of physically defective and epileptic children and make such provision for their education as they are already required to make for mental defectives under the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Acts, 1899 to 1914.

These measures for the prevention and cure of disease are supplemented by positive measures for the promotion of health thru physical training, which is to form an even more important part of the curriculum of elementary, continuation and secondary schools than ever before. The power granted to authorities to supply or maintain holiday or school camps, centres and equipment for physical training, playing fields, school baths, school swimming baths and "other facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening" has already been referred to. Before the passing of the Act the government had already inaugurated the practise of financially assisting local authorities in the appointment of play supervisors and in the maintenance of evening recreation centres. By these measures provision is made for social and moral training as well as physical. Mr. Fisher allayed the fear that an opportunity would be seized to expand physical training to cover military training. He agreed that "it would be entirely inappropriate to take advantage of an Education Bill to introduce such a very radical alteration in our scheme of education as the introduction of compulsory military training in schools. So far as he knew their mind, the War Office had no desire what-

ever to see military training in the continuation schools given to young people in this country. The interest of the War Office was that young boys, when they reached the military age of eighteen, should be in fit physical condition. It was only after they had reached eighteen that formal instruction under the War Office began."

The control of child labor which constitutes the greatest menace to physical welfare is now placed in the hands of the education authorities. No child of school age will be permitted to be employed on any school day or on any day before six o'clock in the morning or after eight o'clock in the evening or for more than two hours on Sunday. By an unfortunate concession local authorities may by by-laws permit the employment of children over twelve for one hour before and one hour after school. Street trading of children is prohibited and restrictions are placed around the employment of children on the stage and in certain factories and occupations. On the report of a school medical officer individual children may be prohibited from engaging in certain occupations that may be prejudicial to their health or physical development or interfere with their obtaining the proper benefit from education.

In the matter of school attendance the Act at one stroke removes all exemptions from attendance at public elementary schools, in which fees are now entirely abolished, for children between the ages of five and fourteen, unless exemption is claimed on the ground of attendance at other schools that must be subject to inspection either by a local authority or the Board of Education. Thus a controversy that has lasted nearly thirty years on the question of half-time attendance at school for children over eleven or twelve years of age is brought to a close. Where nursery schools are established a local authority may permit attendance at these up to the age of six and transfer to the elementary schools at that age. Further, local authorities are empowered to enact by-laws requiring compulsory attendance at public elementary schools up to the age of fifteen or, with the approval of the Board, up to sixteen. The Act now

extends the scope of the elementary schools by requiring the inclusion of practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities and requirements of the children and the organization of advanced instruction for the older or more intelligent children, who are not transferred to higher schools, by means of central schools and central or special classes. This provision means that children in the upper grades will not be required to waste what for many will be the last years of full-time education as the result of an antiquated definition of the term, elementary school. The Act thus sets up what will virtually prove to be a system of intermediate education, with the right to exemption from attendance at continuation schools for children remaining until sixteen. The Act does not define nor did the debates bring out the nature of the work that will be provided in the advanced courses, but the guess may be hazarded that they will follow the type already successfully inaugurated in the London central schools, and probably will not be unlike some of the schemes proposed for the junior high schools in this country.

For the present the question of providing free secondary schools is shelved, but local authorities are encouraged to provide a more adequate supply of secondary schools with greater access to them, so that, in the words of the Act, "children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting thru inability to pay fees." The enlarged and enriched opportunities of education will consist not merely of an increase of free places to pupils from elementary schools and of scholarships, but also of the provision of maintenance allowances. Beyond the references already made the Act does not deal with secondary schools, but the Board has recently issued new regulations that will require the organization of advanced courses for pupils above the age of sixteen who desire to specialize in classics, science and mathematics, or modern languages. Up to the age of sixteen it is intended that all pupils shall enjoy a general education with due recognition of the claims of the classics, the sciences, and modern languages in a liberal education.

Vocational preparation finds no place in the program but will probably be provided in an extension of the number of junior and senior technical schools.

Up to this point Mr. Fisher encountered no difficulty in piloting his measure thru the House of Commons. The storm centre proved to be the provision for compulsory attendance at continuation schools for young persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen for eight hours a week for forty weeks in the year between the hours of seven in the morning and eight in the evening. Employers are required not only to allow the time off necessary for attending school but such additional time up to two hours as may be necessary to secure that a young person "is in a fit mental and bodily condition to receive full benefit from the attendance at school." The young person, his parents and his employers may be liable to a fine if he fails to attend regularly. Exemptions from attendance are granted only to those who have attended a full-time day school to sixteen or are in attendance at such school or are attending part-time continuation or "works" schools established by employers in connection with their factories and open to inspection by the Board and the local education authority. The chief opposition came from a small group of employers who feared that their supply of labor would be cut off. These were ready to suggest all kinds of compromises—half-time attendance for twenty hours a week between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, special intensified and advanced courses for pupils between twelve and fourteen, and increased opportunities for secondary and university education for brighter pupils. But as Mr. Fisher eloquently pointed out, "there is nothing sacrosanct itself about industry. The real interests of the State do not consist in the maintenance of this or that industry, but in the maintenance of the welfare of all its citizens." To the surprise of the opposition no less than his supporters, Mr. Fisher agreed to postpone the full operation of the compulsory provision as it affects young persons between sixteen and eighteen for seven years from the appointed day, that is, the

day on which the whole section is declared by the Board to become operative. In addition he agreed to reduce the required attendance from eight hours a week to seven hours. The opposition was now satisfied, but many of the ardent supporters of the Bill charged Mr. Fisher with betraying the cause. As a matter of fact, Mr. Fisher has sacrificed nothing that he was not fully aware could be sacrificed. It is obvious that at this crisis, when the building of new schools is suspended, when the existing schools have the greatest difficulty in maintaining even a minimum supply of teachers, and when the industrial demands for labor are urgent, the full operation of the law, affecting more than two and a half million adolescents, would have been impossible. Mr. Fisher's compromise means that a start can soon be made and that the public will be educated to the full significance of the measure when the seven years are completed. A number of education authorities and a number of the larger industrial establishments have already adopted schemes that have the approval of the Board, thus disproving the contention that only the bare minimum required by Mr. Fisher's concession will be provided. The probability is that after seven years of experimentation local authorities will be ready to do more than the Act requires.

As in the case of the advanced courses in elementary schools the function of the continuation schools is broadly defined as schools "in which suitable courses of study, instruction, and physical training are provided without payment of fees." The provisions for social training and medical inspection will also apply to these schools. It is probable that the courses of study will be liberal and general in character. Indeed, guarantees were asked and assurances were given in the course of the debates that specific vocational training would not be given in these schools, but Mr. Fisher pointed out that "It would not be to the interest of an educated democracy that there should be no connection between the education they were seeking in the schools and the lives they were to lead. At the same time he felt that education should be a great liberating force, that it should

provide compensation against the sordid monotony which attached to so much of industrial life of the country by lifting the workers to a more elevated and purer atmosphere, and the Board would be false to the purpose for which the Bill was framed if it were to sanction a system in continuation schools in which due attention was not paid to the liberal aspects of education." Under the freedom permitted by the procedure thru schemes considerable latitude will be permitted to local authorities to adapt the courses to local conditions. The vocations will no doubt furnish a starting-point for such courses of instruction. Steps have already been taken as, for example, at the University of Manchester, to furnish special courses for training teachers for continuation schools. For the present there is some danger that a false start may be made by appointing teachers whose sole experience has been in elementary or secondary schools. However that may be, the point that needs to be emphasized here is that the criticism that has been leveled against Mr. Fisher's compromise is not valid, and that the continuation school with compulsory attendance required up to the age of eighteen will be an accomplished fact at the close of the seven years of the postponement.

The Act has been variously hailed as the children's charter and as the nation's charter. Certainly it inaugurates a new era as embodying "the first real attempt ever made in this country (England) to lay broad and deep the foundations of a scheme of education which would be truly national." Of much greater significance for the future of English democracy is the fact that the Act is an attempt to provide the foundations of an education for the great mass of young citizens which, to quote Mr. Fisher, is "adequate to the new, serious and enduring liabilities which the development of this great world war creates for our Empire or to the new civic burdens which we are imposing upon millions of our people." But whatever the merits of the Act may be, it should not escape the attention of educators in this country that the English government and the English people have not considered it incompatible with the successful conduct

of the war to divert some attention to the more pressing domestic problems of the present and the immediate future. Education is but part of the broader program for reconstruction after the war that is already being considered in England and whose scope is defined in the following words by the War Cabinet in its Report for 1917: "It is, indeed, becoming more and more apparent that reconstruction is not so much a question of rebuilding society as it was before the war, but of moulding a better world out of the social and economic conditions which have come into being during the war."

I. L. KANDEL

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II

THE NATION AND THE CRISIS IN ITS SCHOOLS¹

Apart from the prosecution of the war itself, there is no more urgent problem now before the American people than that created by the threatened collapse of the teaching profession. Collapse is an extreme word; but so is the emergency it describes. The drafting into other work of large numbers of the most capable teachers, the continual opening of new doors of opportunity to thousands of others, the utterly inadequate financial provision for the majority of the remainder; these are no longer matters for debate. They are facts. And they are facts ominous with disaster for the nation. If the American people can not be made to see the situation and to supply an early and drastic remedy, we shall run the risk, even tho we win the war, of losing all that makes the war worth winning. Our schools are the spring and origin of our democracy. Of what avail will it be to spend our blood in defending the forms of democratic society, if the life that is to fill and energize them is lost? And if our schools suffer it will be lost. It is futile to declare that this is a matter for the future. If the war has taught us anything, it ought to have taught us that the future becomes the present with fatal rapidity and that failure to provide for that future in advance is criminal. Foresight, then, is what is wanted, and again, foresight, and yet again, foresight. The American people now have a supreme opportunity to exercise foresight in the matter of their schools. Will they exercise it? Or will they kill the goose that lays the golden eggs?

Fortunately there are a few departments of education which even the man who can see only what is just under his nose can realize are not only indispensable to the life of

¹ Read at the meeting of the National Education Association at Pittsburgh, Pa., on June 11, 1918.

the nation but are as integral parts of the prosecution of the war as the building of ships or the training of armies. A blind man can see that if the teaching of chemistry or engineering or medicine in this country were to suffer, the military arm of the nation would soon be crippled. Fearful lest the supply of skilled workers should fall off, industrial leaders are realizing more fully every day how dependent they are on the flow of trained men from the hands of the schoolmasters. Within a month, for example, a manager of one of the largest munition plants in the country came to the head of the department of chemistry of one of our colleges with the declaration that he was in need of a chemist particularly fitted for work of a character which he specified.

"You have the very man we want," said he, naming an assistant professor of chemistry in the college in question. "You must let us have him."

"But I can't," replied the professor. "Our department can not get on without him. He can not be replaced."

"How much is he receiving here?" inquired the manager. The head of the department mentioned his salary.

"We will double that," declared the manager without an instant's hesitation, "if he will go to work for us tomorrow morning."

"We can not meet that offer," said the professor, "but if you take him, don't expect us to keep on sending you the groups of trained chemists that that man has helped to turn out in the past."

The manager hesitated; the thought seemed to sober him. "You're right," he exclaimed. "I see it. Keep your man. He is more indispensable to us here than he would be in our plant." And he went away to seek some other solution of his problem. You can call that patriotism or you can call it foresight. Perhaps the two come, in the end, to much the same.

Now that incident presents in miniature the relation of technical education to the war. Every day this war becomes more of a war of expert knowledge. The man behind

the desk is as essential as the man behind the gun. Indeed he is the man behind the gun.

All this is so plain in the case of subjects like chemistry, engineering, and medicine that an apology is almost necessary for dwelling on it. But it does not appear to be so plain in the case of subjects just as really, albeit a bit more indirectly, connected with the war. And when it comes to education generally, to the majority of the public it does not appear to be plain at all.

The argument in many minds seems to run something like this: "Our business at present is to win the war. By all means let us keep the technical schools that have a bearing on that business running full blast. As for the rest of the school system, time enough to attend to that when the war is over." Now if we knew that the war would be over in a year; or if the country were financially at its last gasp, with taxation passing the limits of the tolerable—if luxury were entirely eliminated, and waste and extravagance things of the past; or if all the able-bodied men and women were at the front, in the factory, or on the farm—then there might be a gleam of reason in a proposition to close the schools till the war was over, or to let them pass into the hands of admittedly inferior persons. Even under such circumstances the proposal would be a desperate one. Culture and education are by their nature continuous things. They are a kind of birth. You can not disturb the process of physical birth in a nation without disaster. Neither can you interrupt its spiritual and intellectual life and expect to take it up, unimpaired, where it was dropt. It would be tragedy, indeed, if the present generation were to win the war only to have its fruits wasted by a generation incapable of understanding them or using them.

And right here it is that we touch the center of the misunderstanding concerning this war and general education. This is not merely a war of chemistry and engineering, a war of technical knowledge pitted against technical knowledge; it is a war of cultures and ideals, of ideas pitted against ideas. In this sense, it is, literally, a war of schoolmasters;

and only the hope of victory in this latter struggle makes the sacrifices of the other conflict seem worth while. But to achieve that victory the ideas and ideals for which we stand must be kept pure and free-flowing at their source. For that deeper war behind the other is bound to go on long after the physical strife has ceased. Everywhere men make the capital mistake of supposing that the good or evil of this war is a thing that will be definitely settled on the day when victory is attained and the treaty of peace signed. There could not be a grosser error. The upshot of this war for humanity, the final good or bad of it, is going to depend on what the nations do as a result of it, on whether it gets the better of the brain of humanity by stunning it, or whether the brain of humanity gets the better of it by understanding it. But this, in the main, lies with the will and the intellect of the next generation, and the will and the intellect of the next generation lie, in no small measure, in the keeping of the teachers of the present. It has become a truism that the Germany of today is the product of the German schoolmasters of yesterday. Just as certainly the America of tomorrow, perhaps the world of tomorrow, will be the product of the American teachers of today. What, then, if the American teaching force of today comes to consist of an inferior selection from our present teachers supplemented by high-school girls of no experience, no special training, of temporary tenure, and only passing interest in their work? What if the prophecy of at least one publisher of textbooks be realized, who has declared that only "fool-proof" textbooks must be published in America for the present—for the reason, to use his own words, that "we are going to have to deal with just that type of teacher for the next ten or fifteen years?" Such a prediction from an unsentimental business man with an eye for profits should set us thinking. America must not delude herself into believing that she can put her children into the hands of teachers of the "fool-proof textbook" type and yet expect those teachers to turn out a generation of statesmen capable of grappling with the problems of what promises to be the most critical period in

the social and political history of mankind. To achieve that result the teachers must be, on the contrary, not only not inferior, but markedly superior, the best that can be had, not merely in training and intellectual equipment, but in character, imagination, and social vision, men and women fitted by virtue of what they are to disseminate the spirit of democracy. We must put forever behind us the childish notion that reading, writing, and arithmetic, and the rest, are all there is to education. For the genuine purposes of life, these are the incidental products of teaching; its central products are those intangible and imponderable things, that total attitude toward life, which the child takes in, as unconsciously as it takes in the air, from the personality of the teacher as a whole. Woe to the future if that personality be of inferior grade.

Yet at the present hour, as has already been hinted, practically all forces are making in the direction of just such inferiority. There are inducements on every hand for the most successful teachers to leave the profession; there are few inducements for those with promise of success to enter it. With the many branches of military service open to the teacher with their patriotic appeal, with hundreds of industrial concerns bidding for the services of men and women with precisely the equipment that the teacher's training gives, and with salaries in most of the schools far below even that modest level of subsistence that the teacher has been granted in the past, the profession is bound to undergo, is already undergoing, rapid deterioration. If it be urged that the teacher at this crisis should be patriotic and remain at his post, bearing his part of the sacrifice of the time, the answer is that there is no group of workers in the country who would be less willing, if they could, to escape that sacrifice. They, if anyone, are in a position to know the worth of the thing that is at stake. All they ask is that they shall not be called upon to carry an utterly unjust and crushing share of the burden. All they ask is that they shall be treated in the spirit of President Wilson's recent declaration to Congress that the load the people

must shoulder must be equitably placed. "If the burden is justly distributed," were the President's words, "and the sacrifice made a common sacrifice from which none escapes who can bear it at all [the people of this country] will carry it cheerfully and with a sort of solemn pride." The teachers of the country subscribe unanimously to that creed. Also, they ask to have it applied to their case. If it is not, it is possible to predict with accuracy what will happen to the teaching profession. The teachers of the country will fall roughly into three classes, classes which were already being defined during the decade and a half of sharp rise in prices prior to 1914. The war merely accelerated, enormously, their formation.

First, there will be what we may call the endowed class. This will be a small one and will be confined in the main to the higher branches of education. It will consist of a certain number of financially independent persons who will continue teaching because of the pleasure of the work or the intellectual and social prestige flowing from connection with a college or university. However highly we may think of individuals within this group, the idea is repugnant to every democratic instinct we possess of having any part of our educational system pass under what would inevitably become a kind of upper-caste control.

Second, there will be what we may call the part-time class. This will consist of an immense number who will give only a share of their time and energy to teaching: who will teach, but who will not expect their teaching salary to support them. Few outside the profession have any idea how largely the teachers of the country already belong to this class, from the many who earn a few dollars on the side or devote what ought to be their period of intellectual recreation, the summer vacation, to other work, to the few (again mostly in the higher branches of education) who frankly, sometimes cynically, make their teaching incidental and double or treble their salaries by outside work. The effect of this state of affairs on the profession calls for no comment. No man can serve two masters in the voca-

tional world any more than he can in the moral world. The secret of a strong will is undivided attention. No one can calculate the degree to which the efficiency of education in this country is already impaired thru the necessity under which thousands of teachers suffer of doing two things at once. What sort of work would the nation expect of its executives and legislators, of its sailors and soldiers, or of its business men, if, after their regular day's labor, they were compelled to give their attention to some side-line of work to eke out a living income? Yet that is exactly what the nation seems to expect of a multitude of its teachers. And bad as this part-time condition is at present, it is bound, unless something radical is done, to become immeasurably worse.

And then there will be a third class of teacher. (And again this group may be recognized as already in process of formation.) For it there is no satisfactory name. Were the term not certain to be misunderstood, it might be called the sweated class. Perhaps the exploited class would be less open to objection. It will consist in part of teachers who, thru age, poor health, or family responsibilities, or other circumstances over which they have little or no control, will be able neither to escape from the profession nor to add materially on the side to their teaching income, with the result that they will be compelled to take what is offered them and lower their standard of living accordingly. Such teachers will deserve nothing but sympathy. They will be slaves in outward condition but not in spirit. And much the same will be true of those teachers who, thru a mistaken sense of duty combined with an ignorance of political economy, remain at their desks when they could leave them. But this will not be the case with what it is to be hoped will prove a small group of teachers who, with both power to do otherwise and knowledge of the consequences of their choice, will accept a standard of living below the minimum of what makes genuinely human life, as distinguished from mere living, possible. Surely it is to be hoped that the time may never come when the teacher will not be willing

to live simply; a certain austerity of life befits his position of spiritual leadership as it does that of the minister. But simplicity is one thing and a poverty that stunts the soul is another—and at the opposite pole. The teacher who submits to such poverty voluntarily is a slave in spirit as well as in outward fact, and his act degrades not only his own profession but the working world as a whole as certainly as child labor, or coolie labor, or convict labor, degrades it.

And even if poverty did not injure the teacher and his fellow workers, how could it fail thru him to harm the child under his care? Possibly there are kinds of labor that can be well performed by those who have only the bare necessities—tho it is to be doubted. But how can he whose function is to awaken life, perform that function when life, in the sense of something above mere subsistence, is denied him? And how, on the other hand, can the child be expected to have respect for the things of the mind when he sees those who have devoted a lifetime to them refused the decencies of existence? “Why should I go into teaching,” a high-school girl is reported to have asked an aunt who was urging her to adopt her own vocation. “Why should I go into teaching when I can get two dollars and a half a day more than you are getting after teaching twenty years?” “Why should I want an education?” a boy who had left school for the mines is said to have retorted smilingly to the teacher who was trying to impress on him the need of a high-school education for success in life, “Why should I want an education? Why, my dear teacher, I’m making a good deal more than you are, now.” What could the teacher answer? . . . No one in his senses desires to measure the value of truth in dollars. But you will never convince the rising generation that knowledge is power while it beholds so many of the professional dispensers of knowledge in a state of virtual slavery.

These, then, are the three classes. An endowed class, a part-time class, a sweated or servile class; these are the divisions into which the American teaching profession will

split up, if some radical remedy is not adopted. Is this country willing to have its schools, which it has long pointed to with pride as the source of its democracy, pass into the hands of an endowed class, or a part-time class, or a slave class? If it does, democracy in America deserves to perish. And it will perish. If America desires at last to supply Germany with a genuine reason for boasting that its kultur is superior to our culture, let it neglect its schools.

What, then, is the remedy?

There is just one remedy—tho there may seem to be two, due to the two quite opposite ways thro which it may be attained.

But before coming to the remedy and the methods of attaining it, let us notice what, emphatically, is not the remedy. The remedy is not to raise teachers' salaries sporadically, here a little and there a little, twenty-five per cent in this enlightened city, five per cent in that benighted one, \$500 a year in some industrially booming section (where teachers have grown scarce), \$50 a year in some out-of-the-way corner of the land where supply and demand in teachers has not been perceptibly affected. "Supply and demand"—that goes to the heart of the matter. The critical situation of our schools will never be genuinely remedied so long as teachers' services are regarded as a commodity to be purchased at the cheapest obtainable rate in the open market. That in many places is the present attitude toward the teacher. That attitude has got to end, or our democracy will end. The teacher must come to be taken for what he is: a public servant, performing a task of unsurpassed importance to the nation, and on that account just as fully entitled to adequate compensation, or its equivalent, as the soldier, the legislator, or the judge. From the kindergarten to the university, the teaching profession in America has got to be lifted (wherever it has fallen below it) to a level that will command for it the full respect of the community and attract into its ranks men and women of the first order. This demand would have been imperative, it is important to notice, even tho the war had not come to com-

plicate matters. The problems of negro and alien education, to mention no others, especially the presence among us of thousands of foreigners who could not speak a word of English, were questions that, prior to 1914, were pressing for solution. The single staggering fact that there were in the United States in 1910 more than five and a half million persons over the age of ten who could neither read nor write in any language, shows better than anything else how incredibly far the country had fallen short, under the free and easy method of regarding teachers' services as a commodity, of creating a genuinely democratic system of education.

Now all this is simply a more roundabout way of saying that education is a national matter. The man who denies that at this hour of the day is not worth listening to. The man who denies that education is a national matter is capable of denying that our army and navy are national matters, of thinking that our states and towns and cities, left to themselves, could carry on the war, which is not to imply for a moment that education is merely a national matter. May the time never come when the people in this locality or that lose control over the teaching of their own children! But the child is of concern to a wider region than the place in which he is born; and the wealth of a community is no measure of the promise of its human material. Can we permit boys and girls of rare gifts, not to mention average boys and girls, just because they happen to have been born on the outskirts of the country, to have only the outskirts of an education? Those boys and girls are the nation's highest assets. The nation must do its share toward bearing the burden of their training. The nation, the state, and the locality, each has its function. The nation, either directly or thru the states, must subsidize and stimulate the struggling community, holding it meanwhile to the highest standards; the state, up to the limit of its power, must do the same, while the locality must be looked to to preserve the principles of variety and individuality against the encroachments of too great centralization. Just now,

however, it is the nation that must seize the initiative and lead the way—if for no other reason than because, at a moment when immediate action is half the battle, legal and constitutional restrictions tie the hands of many of the states and threaten a delay that will be fatal.

But suppose the nation can not be made to see its duty? Then there is only one other way, the second of the two methods already mentioned: the teachers, by concerted action and the application of the principles of collective bargaining, must compel the nation to waken up.

But surely this will not be necessary. The war is training the national imagination to see things on a new scale. It is no longer a day when we say, "This ought to be done. We will do it, provided we can get the money." It is a day rather, when we say of whatever is vital to the public welfare, "Let this be done." And then we get the money.

It is a day of big things. It is a day preeminently when those who are serving the state must be granted the right of way. The teachers of the country are not only serving the state now; they have been serving it all their lives. They are the captains of the army of understanding, not alone of that technical understanding upon which military victory depends but of that larger human understanding upon which depends the whole hope and future of the world. If we spend billions to save the world, can we not spend millions to make the world worth saving? If we pour forth our treasure without stint to those who shape our steel and iron, can we not grant at least a living wage to those who are molding our life itself? The nation must come to the rescue of its schools. For a nation without education is a coast without a lighthouse.

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III

MODERN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES IN UNIVERSITIES¹

The ordinary designation for an instructor in modern languages, literatures, and linguistics is the generic one of member of a department of modern languages. There was a day when the application of this term to so wide a variety of interests was perfectly legitimate. Rudimentary instruction in languages, as such, was then the principal duty of the professor, since these departments had to recruit their students among those with so inadequate a foundation in languages that advanced courses were generally out of the question.

In our larger institutions we have long outlived the necessity for such a combination of interests. We have therefore outlived, as well, the time when it was justifiable. Yet it is unfortunately not too much to say, that a modern language man is still, for the greater public, and for not a few university professors, a sort of Proteus who turns

¹ The inclusion in this article of two apparent digressions—one on language-teaching in undergraduate departments and another on literature and linguistics in graduate-schools—having been criticized, I wish to state that these paragraphs are not intended as inquiries into these questions as such. They are included merely as throwing into clearer contrast the difference in type between the problems of undergraduate and graduate instruction. If the reader will interpret them as such, it is hoped that they will serve the purpose better than a more abstract statement to the same effect.

Attention is also called to the omission of a detailed consideration of the teaching of literature in undergraduate and graduate schools. Doubtless, undergraduate instruction should concern itself more and more with literature; but at present Romance and Germanic departments in undergraduate schools are, as a matter of fact, giving relatively little instruction in literature. So it seems legitimate, for present purposes, merely to contrast undergraduate language instruction with graduate instruction in literature and linguistics. The distinction is, in any event, entirely justified by the fact that under the present system a prospective instructor in graduate subjects must spend the formative years of his life in language-teaching to undergraduates.

his hand with equal effect—or lack of effect—to almost any duty connected with books in a Germanic or Romance language.

And here the writer wishes to have it clearly understood that he has in mind, thruout the article, exclusively departments of Romance and Germanic languages, linguistics, and literatures. Teachers of English and English linguistics and literature in American universities can generally posit a knowledge of the essentials of the language on the part of their students. That being so, and the elementary instruction that is given being principally in the interest of style, it would seem that the problems of those departments are peculiar to them. Doubtless, what is to be said later might perfectly well apply to certain of the less studied languages and literatures of modern Europe, such as Dano-Norwegian, Rumanian or Russian. But these studies now occupy among us precisely the status held many years ago by French, Spanish and German. A teacher of Russian must continue for some time to be a modern language man because he will need to recruit his students principally among persons entirely unacquainted with Russian. Of ancient and Oriental languages, literatures and linguistics, too, this article takes no account.

To come back to the remark that modern language men are expected to perform a great variety of duties with equal efficiency or lack of efficiency, a frank admission that such instructors are constantly being blamed for inefficiency would be best both for those outside and those in these departments. The instructor in language is frequently accused of having no conception of how to approach the problem of teaching it to a class, and the instructor—generally the professor—who lectures on literature is found dry, or narrow, or unbalanced, or even to have a right to two or three of these agreeable characterizations. And all this is quite in the order of things, and so to be expected: ask a man to be at once poet, philosopher and general, and he will turn out none of the three, not even a recognizable imitation of any of the three. He will have done

his best, but the impossible will have been required. Something of this nature has been demanded of the modern language man, with the result that very generally he has been unsuccessful in his quest, and his students with him.

We have now come to the time when it would seem that all this demands immediate attention. And a few years of intelligent effort ought to suffice to remedy the evil. The hope of future success is in the young instructor and graduate student of today. Set the beginner straight, and he will not fail to meet the expectations formed regarding him, any more than do members of other departments. As the matter stands, he almost always enters handicapped upon the course he is to pursue. He is inspired from his boyhood with the partly erroneous, but very democratic, conviction that his success depends upon his merit. If he is curious about languages, learns them easily, and, during his college days, feels that he is acquiring from an increasingly intelligent criticism of the methods of his instructors a real sympathy with the problems of that work, he may desire to teach them later on himself. And he will begin this career in the hope that if he succeeds signally he will be advanced in the measure of his usefulness, so far as the resources of his institution render this possible. He is likely to find, however, that he must await his turn; and for whom? Very possibly for a senior instructor with far less than his own effectiveness as a language teacher, and who is only awaiting the opportunity to abandon this work, in part, to take up the teaching of literature or of linguistics. And the younger man will shortly see that he, too, will later on be expected to teach more or less literature or linguistics, since these branches are the prerogative of a professor, and expected of him.

A moralist, now dead, but extremely popular in these days, tells us that any work that is hard for one is not worth doing. We may suppose that he means hard, because distasteful; and not worth doing, because not well done. Our senior instructor will have ground out his quota of language-teaching for ten or twenty years, leaving behind him a long

record of inefficiency, for the sake of at last giving a course in his particular subject. Sadly enough, the subject is no longer his, and we may speak further on of how this course will really be given. The junior instructor will mark off about an equal number of years of the greatest usefulness, becoming inefficient only at the last, when he must perforce give up a part of his life-work for the sake of the advancement that generally brings with it quite other courses to be given. In other words, everyone must begin with language-teaching, and work up to the teaching of literature and linguistics—because the latter subjects are hard, and the first easy. No worse confusion of issues can be imagined.

Teaching is confused with the subject taught. We may all agree that young instructors should be expected to know a given language, but hardly to be very thoroly conversant with the literature or linguistic science written in or based upon that language. But it does not follow that any intelligent person knowing a given language could or should try to teach it, nor does it follow that teaching languages will help one to ability as a teacher of literature at some future time; quite the contrary.

The instructor in language will get his efficiency only thru experience in teaching, and so may begin this teaching early, since his materials may be mastered in a few years of study. But most intelligent persons from twenty-one to twenty-five should know whether language-teaching or research is congenial. If a prospective instructor can not recognize his own preference at that age, it may generally be inferred that he will never be enthusiastic or effective, and university instructorships should be closed to him until such time as he shows indisputable proof that he is really a valuable man. Until he shall have made a definite choice between the two branches, however, it may safely be predicted that he will never be able to show such proof, and a late choice is more than likely to indicate a half-vocation. In fact, twenty is not a very early age for choosing, provided the roads are clearly differentiated. Much will be realized after twenty that may make the student

who is a prospective teacher feel that he is not adapted, as he had thought, to the vocation of teacher. But the fact that all who choose will not succeed is no proof that one who is a failure in language-teaching will make a good instructor in literature, or vice versa. Experience in the chosen field is the only test which will show the ability of the man. If the early choice was sincerely, intelligently, and happily made, experience will increase only the instructor's interest in his subject. And for the desirably high requirements of university teaching, an early and consistently pursued choice is not too much to expect.

It is undoubtedly true that language teaching is not only no useful preparation for the teaching of literature, but a positive detriment to that spirit and method which should guide the latter. Of linguistics the present writer will not speak particularly. But it would seem that the vast amount of material which the prospective instructor in linguistics must learn to control, and the quite intimate knowledge of the history of thought which he really should possess, would furnish him with a more productive occupation for his time than a life of elementary language-teaching. In any case, linguistics is essentially a research field, and the whole method of procedure is different from that of language-teaching in undergraduate departments; and so, what applies to literature, as distinguished from this last, would seem to be equally true, in general, of linguistics.

To establish the evidence in favor of the position just taken—that language-teaching is a detriment to the prospective or actual teacher of literature—a few remarks about this latter vocation are necessary. It is the eternally repeated maxim of some paradoxical men of letters that "literature can not be taught, anyway." Were it not that this particular confusion of issues is not entirely foreign to certain others who ought to know better, it would seem unnecessary to mention this here. But some very worthy people seem to be misled in this respect, and to take it for granted that the professor of literature is an original writer lacking originality enough to produce a good novel, play,

poem, or what not. Their definition of originality would appear to be strangely limited. The public is under the impression that the professor of literature is trying to teach others to write novels, plays, and poems. In so far as the excellent examples of the works he deals with may have—providing he can interpret them as he should—a stimulating effect upon his classes, he may doubtless often contribute to helping others to write. But that is all: and that is not his real purpose. What he seeks, is not to teach others to write, but to understand and feel. And if, having learned to feel the charm and to understand the import of excellent works, some of his students are impelled to write, this is all very well. The present writer, however, does not think that this will inevitably be the result of hearing good literary interpretation. A great poet may write good criticism, or a great critic good poetry—witness Shelley or Sainte-Beuve—but one thing is certain: the professor of literature can not of his own motion develop a great poet. But he may—and should—open the eyes of many a student to the enjoyment of poetry. Many will write, but few with great effect, and the professor leaves this to the fates.

What should be the manner of teaching in general, and what the point of departure? Nothing short of clarity of expression, springing naturally from a thoro knowledge of the subject, and an intimate realization of the attitude and aptitudes of the public concerned. Here arises an important consideration: can one and the same man successfully address himself to the instruction of an undergraduate class, of the more mature minds gathered in a course of extension teaching, and of the better trained students of a graduate faculty? In other words, is one man to teach literature in the three schools, or are three men requisite for this work? Let us admit for the moment that an instructor from either the undergraduate or graduate school might find an appreciative audience in extension teaching. No certain rule can be laid down for extension courses: it can only be said, that here the most successful instructor will be the one who is the best judge of people and who can

adapt himself with the most intelligent flexibility to the various types of mind and experience with which he will have to deal. This brings us directly to the essential problem of the investigation: what must be posited as the *sine qua non* for this intelligent adaptation? Certainly this: sound knowledge of one's subject and fundamental sympathy with it. In university teaching in general—as distinguished from that in the more elementary schools—it is first of all a penetrating understanding of his subject that makes the instructor effective.

What, then, are the method and spirit of the interpretation of literature, that the teaching of language should be so detrimental to a preparation for it? A brief comparison of the two should show this.

The aim of language-teaching is to bring the student to a correct, and as nearly as may be unconscious use of the foreign language. Sometimes this is attained—or attempted—with the natural or direct method, sometimes by the method of language-analysis as set forth in grammars, or generally thru a combination of the two methods. In a general way, the problem is: to teach the significance and use of arbitrary symbols—since, no matter why “broom” does not suggest a book, the symbol is arbitrary for the student, as are also the various forms of noun and verb and the syntactical conventions. In other words, there is a definite body of fact to be mastered for practical purposes. The moment these facts are inquired into the subject becomes linguistics, and it is not with the methods of linguistics that our teacher can impart a practical knowledge of his language.

In any literary study that merits the name, all this is absent. Here the student is not dealing with a set of symbols: he is in the presence of a historical record of beautifully expressed thought and emotion. And the moment he would deal with this material in the spirit of the language-class he will entirely lose the significance of the study.

It would be hard to count the poetics, arts of second rhetoric, esthetics, analytics, and other final definitions

of literature that have been given to an admiring world since Greek antiquity. But the fact that there is such a multiplicity of theories teaches us two or three very useful lessons: that it will not do to formulate any but the most catholic tests for a literary work; that it is, however, a matter of experience that some attempt at establishing a criterion is desirable; that literature means many things—just as many as there are persons reading it—so that no work of literature can be precisely ticketed and defined. And all this shows conclusively the necessity for breadth of view, quick sympathy and flexibility of mind on the instructor's part. These qualities are, indeed, useful adjuncts in any teaching, and not least in that of the foreign languages. But in practical language-teaching we are dealing with a comparatively circumscribed body of objective fact, whereas in literature we have to do with a vast material, complicated by all the confusing elements of historical accident and personality. It is ability in synthesis, with a full realization of individuality and its fundamental role in literature combined with a feeling for beauty in the various forms which it may take, that make the teacher of literature.

The other problem, that of division of courses in each school—undergraduate, extension, and graduate—may perhaps be approached thru a consideration of the problems arising in the department where several various kinds of research may be clearly separated. The various differences between allied subjects thus realized will make even more evident the necessity of division between language and literature. The stylistic interest in literature—thru which the confusion between language and literature is most frequently brought about—is not a language problem in the sense in which a foreign language is regarded in undergraduate teaching.

The aim of a graduate faculty in modern literature appears to be, to cover the field of literature included in the domain of the particular department. Courses are offered in medieval literature (generally from the linguistic point of view) in sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth

century. One is likely to infer that the department feels that the student must be helped, in turn, to all the facts of the literature before he is considered capable of progressing alone. This is a theory that most professors would probably hasten to deny. It is not merely because the methods of research vary slightly for the different periods that it is advisable that the student follow a course in each period. The point is rather this, that the spirit in which they are to be approached varies greatly, and it is to put the student into the spirit of this new milieu as soon as may be, benefiting from the years of study of the lecturer, that it is advisable that these courses should be offered.

There is, perhaps, also a danger in this method, since the instructor, who is supposed to give a general view of the subject in hand, must be careful not to overdo one or the other aspect of it. For example, let us imagine Professor Benedetto Croce giving a general course in literature. He would be eminently capable of doing this. But would anyone maintain that this should be expected of him, rather than a course admittedly intended to explain his theory of esthetics as applied to the given field? Professor Gaston Paris,² who well earned his fame as a philologist, wrote, among the rest, a couple of little books on French medieval literature. They are of most slender value as literary interpretation, since their whole method is taken over from the philological science of classification of documents. It may be said that they were only intended as useful outlines. But it may be answered, again, that they are not only not useful, from the point of view of literary criticism, but entirely misleading. Considered as repertoires of titles and authoritatively established dates they

² I do not mean to imply, by the use of the name of Gaston Paris in this connection, that he was incapable of real literary interpretation. He has left enough excellent criticism to make such a position untenable. So far as this article is concerned, I have in mind only his *Littérature française au moyen-âge*, forming a part of his *Manuel d'ancien français*, and his *Esquisse historique de la littérature française au moyen-âge*, first published in an English translation and then, posthumously, in French. When I speak, further on, of "the type of mind of Professor Paris," I have reference only to the point of view taken by him in writing these two handbooks.

are most valuable; their unsatisfactory character is disclosed only when they are mistaken by the beginner for interpretations of literature.

But without such workers as Professor Paris there is danger that a department of literature might degenerate into a body of unbalanced theoreticians, each preaching his only partly justifiable hobby, and each playing the inonoclast with everything which his disposition or studies might not allow him to understand and to respect. For very acute thinkers, as well as those emotionally qualified to appreciate only a certain kind of writing, may indulge in the riding of hobbies.

It might, then, be wise for a department to offer at the same time a course in historical research, such as Professor Paris might give, and another particularly concerned with literary interpretation, by a scholar with something the type of disposition of Walter Pater, of Remy de Gourmont, or even of Professor Croce. Of the two professors giving these courses, the authority would be the one of the type of mind of Professor Paris. But he would be teaching the materials for literary study—the solid foundation of fact upon which the other must build his interpretation. Frequently, among the latter's better students, there would be considerable dissent about the interpretation offered. But the end of literary study is to learn how to think and to feel—or rather, what one may legitimately think and feel—with regard to writers of the past and present. And if our second professor succeeds in a marked degree in stimulating this kind of thought and feeling, then he is certainly not the less valuable of the two. It may be objected to such a division of duties, that the professor of literature should combine the qualities of Professor Paris with those of Walter Pater: doubtless, he should, if he is to be the ideal professor. But the ideal will not often be found.

In the application of historical research to the establishment of text and date there is generally possible a final agreement of opinion. In the department of historical research that is concerned with the interpretation of thought and feeling—and it must not be forgotten that this, too,

for all past epochs, is historical research—not only is no final consensus possible, but none is even desirable. For the fundamental fact of a literary work is not so much what the author meant to say, as what he is found to have actually said to the readers of past times, and what he says to us. Just as few honest people can entirely agree about a contemporary author, so scholars who study the Middle Ages or the Eighteenth Century, can rarely agree about Dante or about Voltaire. Nor should they: when they do, and when one of them seems to prove to demonstration any inclusive theory, then something must be wrong. Literature is too large, and each of its individual manifestations too personal, to submit to any but the most flexible classifications founded upon predominant characteristic.

And all this is strangely at variance with the type of problem that arises in language-teaching for practical purposes, and should serve to throw into clearer relief the reasons why long association with the latter type of work will almost inevitably unfit a scholar for the teaching of literature, or for any other research-subject. The dignity of work is most certainly not derived from the nature of the task to which one devotes himself, but from the manner in which the task is accomplished. Therefore, if it were customary—as it is not—to require the teaching of literature as preliminary evidence that one could teach language, we should protest with equal earnestness, since the teaching of literature would be most likely to impair the instructor's usefulness as a teacher of language in the future. Successful language-teaching is far too difficult a task for a person lacking in the qualities of adaptability and breadth of view. The following may help to undeceive any who are of the opinion that our instructors in language are doing a simple or an easy work. Chekhov tells us, in one of his stories, of a young French woman who gained a livelihood in Russia by teaching her language to the children of well-to-do families. A university graduate who needs a working knowledge of French for purposes of research engages this young woman as his tutor.

"She opened Margot, which she had brought with her, and without introduction began:

'French grammar has twenty-six letters. The first letter is called *A*, the second *B*...'

"Excuse me,' Vorotov interrupted, smiling. 'I must warn you, mademoiselle, that you must change your method a little in my case. You see, I know Russian, Greek, and Latin well...I've studied comparative philology, and I think we might omit Margot and pass straight to reading some author.'

"The French girl looked at him in perplexity. Evidently the suggestion seemed to her very naive and ridiculous."

The story seems to show rather clearly how necessary it is that a language-teacher have a first-rate intelligence. But his point of view must nevertheless be entirely different from that of the instructor in literature. Without an early choice between the two fields, and the opportunity for exclusive adherence to the study chosen, no worthy results will be obtained in either.

The most common objection made to the suggestion of division of departments is the intrinsically illegitimate, but so-called practical, objection: Where is the money to be found? The present writer thinks that very little would be required. At most, a certain number of substantial fellowships might gradually be established for students of literature and linguistics, as the reason for them might become apparent upon the definite division of departments. Certainly the graduate departments would suffer no loss of enrolment, since we must guard ourselves from a possible invasion of beings like the young French woman of our story. And the most certain way to the accomplishment of this defence is to continue the requirement of the Ph.D. or its equivalent for advancement in the department of languages, since instructors in languages would thus be provided with that modicum of interest in the problems of literature and of linguistics which would enable them to offer such introduction into the problems of these subjects as might be found useful in an undergraduate department. However,

to require further research and productivity from an instructor in a department of language is to ignore the facts of the situation. Research is not productive or creative unless it is undertaken voluntarily; it is paradoxical to require research.

The present faculties should suffer as little derangement as possible. Provision could be made for the definite transference to one or the other of the new departments, of instructors or professors now unwillingly working in two fields, whenever their preference for and proved ability in one or the other subject might render their transference desirable to themselves or to others; no more could, or should be attempted. The immediately possible changes would work some improvement, and gradually the influx, into each department, of men with specialized interests would be bound to raise the standard of each.

Discomfort would result from such a change. But the discomfort would be temporary, and the sooner it is confronted, the sooner the present unfortunate situation will be changed. The brunt of all this will undoubtedly have to be borne by the young graduate student who chooses literature or linguistics, rather than practical language-teaching, as his life-work. The extent and difficulty of the material which he must master will in most cases delay his entrance into university teaching considerably beyond the time when the instructor in language should begin his teaching experience. For the instructor in literature and linguistics will become efficient not only thru teaching experience, but first, and for a long term of years, thru study. The language-instructor, on the contrary, can gain efficiency only thru classroom experience. The present writer believes that it is more than probable that prospective instructors in literature and linguistics would be happy to undergo the necessary discomfort of five to ten years of unpaid work for the sake of at last being certain of working entirely in a congenial and freely chosen field. Not only this; it is equally certain that in time the graduate schools would attract a larger number of students, and assistantships

to professors of literature or linguistics might become advisable for the university. Aside from the fellowships which would gradually come into existence, and aside from these assistantships, which would prepare the prospective instructor for his teaching career, most of these men would feel justified in making greater sacrifices than at present, when no assurance is given them that they can—even after years of divided effort—devote themselves entirely to what they feel that they could do best. In any case, and regardless of temporary inconvenience, the larger universities should begin the work of reformation, by changing a situation which has become an anachronism.

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IV

AMERICAN IDEALS: HOW TO TEACH THEM

The entrance of the United States into the World War has brought forward the need of defining Americanism. It has also brought up the need of defining the meaning of loyalty. Who is the loyal American and who is disloyal? The answer to this question is plain and unequivocal. Loyalty to the United States means willingness to sacrifice all that one has of material goods or life itself, if need be, to preserve the state. No person can count himself loyal who gives his support to the country only as long as it is personally agreeable for him to do so. The genuine patriot will subscribe to the following statement, "I believe it is my duty to my country to love it, to support its constitution, to obey its laws, to respect its flag and to defend it against all enemies whatever the cost to me may be."

Any American citizen, who, on examining his own heart, finds that he is not ready for that complete sacrifice is not a good citizen. Such a person has no moral right to remain under the protection of the American flag. If he can not bring about a profound change in his convictions he should leave America and go to the land of his heart's allegiance.

When the country entered the war there was a good deal of anxious questioning as to the quality of the American spirit. We were like the swimmer of untested power who strikes out to reach the life-boat or the shore. We knew that we had to go on or go under. But the response which has come from the country in the midst of the national emergency does not mean that any new and previously non-existent patriotism has been called into existence. The fireman who enters a blazing building and carries someone out to safety is just as brave when he is merely waiting for the call of duty. In performing the act of service he simply demonstrates his bravery. National feeling and

sentiment lie deeply imbedded in the life and consciousness of the people.

It may be a quick and easy way to dispose of the question of loyalty to say that anyone not loyal to the flag should not presume to remain under its protection and, above all, that no one not devoted unreservedly to American principles should presume to teach the children of the nation. But loyalty to America implies the holding of definite convictions, of attachment to fixt principles, of a passionate devotion to American ideals. This devotion must spring both from the heart and the mind. A mere intellectual conviction will not carry one very far on the path of service to the country. The feeling of loyalty springs from a love of the principles and things for which the country stands.

Why, then, should a definite effort be made to teach patriotism? While we abhor the spirit, the method, and the result of the teaching of national aims in Germany we have no doubt of the fact that national ideals in Germany have been moulded largely if not chiefly thru instruction in the schools. If the spirit of autocracy and the divine right to rule can be taught successfully we believe that the spirit of America, likewise, can be clearly defined and taught with brilliant results. It is the duty of the teachers of America to understand fully the principles of our democracy and it is their duty to develop a sane and robust Americanism in every one of the pupils instructed. But it must be granted that it is more difficult to teach the spirit of democracy than it is to teach a Prussian child to be an automaton. In teaching the American spirit the teacher must be a living embodiment of the spirit. Otherwise the instruction may be as sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal. It will not answer, either, to say that instruction in patriotism should take the form mainly of activities. By well-defined steps the child should be led to understand American ideals and to feel a passionate regard for them. Then every opportunity should be seized to have the child put into practise the principles taught. But mere wordy preaching of loyalty has no value. It rather breeds contempt.

But we may ask ourselves what are these ideals which we should teach and where shall we look to find a statement of them? The Century Dictionary defines an ideal as "A standard of desire—an ultimate object or aim—a mental conception of what is most desirable." A national ideal differs from a personal ideal in that it has been attained to a degree by a large number of people. We must see the evidence of our faith before our eyes. A national ideal, too, must be the result of historic growth. Bishop Stubbs, the English historian, remarks that "The roots of the present lie deep in the past." It is true of national ideals. They are not ephemeral growths springing up in a night. To be called national they must spring from the life of the people and must be firmly imbedded. They must illustrate continuous, historic growth. In fact, the only kind of national ideal that can win allegiance or following is the one that has sprung from the life of the people. To a pupil as well as to an adult you can make no patriotic appeal more moving than to show convincingly that a certain course is characteristically American. The good American wishes to act true to the type to which he belongs.

Looking at the subject from this point of view we shall not try to conjure up striking or unique statements of ideals—to read into the record something that is not there. The question is sometimes asked "Has America any national ideals that are distinctive, that could be marked as unmistakably as we would mark a French, a British or an Italian ideal?" If America does not have such clearly marked ideals we ought not to pretend that she does, for we might find like Sir Launfal that we had traveled far afield only to find that the object of our search was right at our hand.

One of our foremost American ideals is our passion for democracy or self-government. Historically it runs back to the colonial period. This ideal should be taught in its historical development. For a century and a half the colonies, left in neglect to control their own affairs, learned the art of self-regulation and self-government. The Revolu-

tion was little else than the insistence that they be allowed to continue to govern themselves. As we know very well now, the Revolution was conservative and preservative. The ideal exprest by Lincoln when he refers to "government of the people, by the people and for the people" or by Emerson when he says "We will walk on our own feet—We will work with our own hands—We will speak our own minds." This ideal is represented in the self-dependence of the colonists in South Carolina who rejected the artificial scheme of government known as Locke's Grand Model. It is shown by the western pioneers who cleared the land and worked their little patches of land with the rifle close at hand. It is represented in the spirit of the Monroe Doctrine that small peoples shall be allowed to determine for themselves how they shall be governed.

The Declaration of Independence contains the statement, in simple form, of a second national ideal when it says, "All men are created equal." But surely all are not created with equal ability. In what are they equal? The American idea is that they shall have equality of opportunity. It means that every man shall have his chance to rise. It means that in the game of life the rules shall be the same for all. The first ten amendments to the Federal Constitution, known as our Bill of Rights, furnishes the fundamental statement of rights that are guaranteed to all. Note them. 1. Right to equal protection of the laws. 2. Right of persons accused of crime to be safeguarded in criminal trial procedure. 3. Freedom of speech, press and religion. 4. No person shall be deprived of life without due process of law. 5. Freedom from compulsory quartering of soldiers. 6. No person shall be deprived of liberty or property without due process of law. It should be noted that our system of courts with an august and independent Supreme Court at the head of the system has been provided as a means of guaranteeing equality of opportunity for all. Good citizens, therefore, will aim to help the courts, not to outwit and retard them in their efforts to secure fair play and even-handed justice to all.

Another national characteristic which may be designated as an ideal is the passion for action, accomplishment, deeds. The man who does things is the man whom the average American admires. We believe that man is the best patriot who proves his patriotism by his deeds. A recent Liberty Bond poster read "Are you 100% American? Prove it. Buy Liberty Bonds." The American does not honor the man with millions on account of the millions. He does honor the man who achieves notable results. The ideal of work, industry, action, springs naturally from American soil. The pioneer could not be an idler, nor has there been any sympathy for an idle class at any time.

Any one who should take count of the persons met on the streets of a continental city in Europe, especially in Germany, would find that one out of every eight persons is employed by the government. In an American city about one in one hundred is employed by the government. Why are so many employed by the government in German cities and so few in American cities? It is because of a profound difference in the aims and ideals of the two countries. The disparity between the two countries suggests the essence of another American ideal, possibly the most important of all. It is the spirit of cooperation and service for the welfare of the community and the nation. A writer of popular essays in one of our papers recently took as his text the statement that we should not be bothered with solicitors on the street for the Y. M. C. A., the Red Cross, and the like. "If these undertakings were good," he concluded, "why should they not be conducted by the government?" The writer probably did not stop to think that he was striking at a good American practise. We would not, if we could, stop the voluntary expression of service.

Donald Hanky in *The Student in Arms* represents the soul of the soldier in this manner. Over and above the individuality of each man, his personal desires, and fears and hopes there is superimposed the corporate personality of the soldier which knows no fear and only one ambition—

to defeat the enemy and so to further the righteous cause for which he is fighting. Every good American citizen is a soldier of democracy and, as such, possesses a second other self. It is thru this second other self that he serves his fellow man. He rises above his own personal interests and becomes an unselfish worker for the common good. This is the spirit which democracy breeds and which has become a predominant American trait. The Swiss, who represent a high type of democratic development, express the idea in their national motto "All for Each and Each for All." It means at its best self-abnegation, self-sacrifice and service. The principle is very wide in its application. It covers things as far apart as accepting the rule of the majority and practising ordinary, every-day honesty. It means compassion, humaneness, sympathy, a chivalrous regard for womanhood, the spirit of hospitality, flaming indignation at cruelty and barbarism. The Prussians wondered at the privileges accorded to them by "the idiotic Yankees." It is little wonder that they could not understand the American spirit. They have been trained in a different school of political philosophy. Democracy carries with it great privileges and great rights, but those privileges and rights carry with them their correlative obligations. The glory of democracy is that it teaches the doctrine of service. Do we mean in saying this that selfishness has disappeared from America? Hardly. But where shall we find the perfection of any ideal except in heaven? We mean that we are marching toward the ideal. And who are better able to point the way to the ideal than the teachers of the city? If this ideal were not uppermost in your lives how many of you would be at your tasks? The life of America in the past and at the present centers around this ideal. It represents America at its best, but it is characteristically American.

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V

EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN GERMANY¹

I

During 1918 German newspapers and periodicals have been giving increasing attention to the question of reforms in the educational system of their country.

In the main, attention has been devoted to three chief points. First, the necessity, in view of the great gaps made by the war in the ranks of the intelligent in the most varied occupations, for making every possible attempt to fill up these gaps by the introduction of fresh intelligences. Next, the educational experts appeared on the scene, and we find accounts of various psychological experiments made with a view to ascertaining practicable methods to discover those children whose mental equipment entitled them to special consideration. Lastly, the necessary reforms of the school system, the overhauling of old types, and the establishment of new types, are discust.

The first point had already come into prominence just before the outbreak of war. In June, 1914, a conference, representing 132,000 elementary and secondary teachers, was held at Kiel, when a resolution was past to the effect that the present and future welfare of the state rendered it imperative that the educational resources of the German nation should be made accessible to as many classes as possible, and, within certain limits, to all classes of the German people, as only in this way would the nation be able to satisfy its demands for intellectual energy from the general mass of the people. As a corollary, a demand was made for the establishment of what were termed Uniform Schools (*Einheitsschulen*) which would form the necessary connect-

¹ From the Educational Supplement to the London *Times*, September 19 and 26, 1918.

ing link, not furnished by the elementary school, with a higher system of education, and where there would enter no considerations of social position or creed. It was pointed out that every year over $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions of children leave the German elementary schools on reaching the age of fourteen to take up manual labor of some kind, a certain proportion of whom are undoubtedly fitted for intellectual work, or at least are worthy of a trial proving their capacity for such work.

The supporters of this idea are not in general agreement as to the exact type of school they desire to see established. One section advocates first the continuance of the present elementary basis, only with this difference, that attendance would be compulsory for all children of all ages without regard to the social standing or position of the parents. Others who favor the uniform-school system demand for each primary school a six years' course, to be similarly attended by every child from its sixth to its twelfth year. It is then argued that the teachers in these primary schools should be absolute and final judges as to whether their scholars were worthy of selection for higher education, the decision to be based solely upon the intellectual capacities of the scholar as revealed in his career at the uniform school. By this means only really gifted scholars would find their way to the higher school, while at the same time every child would be educated according to its capacity. Every opportunity would be given for the development of latent or potential talent, without prejudice to the education of the average or mediocre scholar. Apart from the direct gain to the community, it is suggested that the proposed system of uniform schools indicates a line of development for the weakening of class distinctions.

The vast changes brought about, or in progress, as the result of the war have, of course, given considerable emphasis to these proposals. At the same time, opposition and criticism have not been wanting. This criticism was crystallized in a recent article by Professor Gerhard Budde, who, while sympathizing with the ideal, is of the opinion that the

difficulties in the way are insurmountable. He lays stress on the fact that these difficulties are inherent in the general structure of society, and of the different general, mental, and moral spheres of thought and perception of the various social groups in which children grow up before they go to school, and from which they acquire a certain definite moral and intellectual outlook. Thus the children of the better classes have a great initial advantage from the more favorable environment in which they are brought up, as compared with the children of the masses; and a sort of stagnation would ensue if all these children were to be grouped in one school, irrespective of their primary equipment. Again, as the teachers of the uniform school are to give the final verdict on each pupil, it is evident that new difficulties at once arise, for a child's work in the elementary school is no safe criterion of his actual abilities. Some children "blossom" early, others late, and there would thus be a manifest danger in making the future life-careers of the pupils dependent on a verdict of this kind.

Again, even if this verdict could be trusted, it is probable that school-space in the higher institution could only be found for the selected pupils at the expense of turning out the stupid or mediocre children whose social position had already given them entrance there. An incidental danger would arise also from the fact that this method would tend largely to cut off the supply of intelligent manual labor required for various branches of industry. It is extremely probable that the elementary pupils who are transferred to the higher schools will do their utmost to enter one of the professions or the Civil Service, so that their services would be lost to handicrafts, industries, and agriculture. The withdrawal of all the clever children would, too, so reduce the intellectual level of the elementary school as to make it of the least possible value to all concerned. Finally, Professor Budde casts grave doubts on the social effects of the uniform school, which might well, because of the psychological equipment of the child at this period and his consequent tendency to live a life of the senses, increase rather

than diminish social contrasts, because, for instance, envy and pride might easily result from the observation of inequalities, especially in matters of food and clothing, among the children attending the school.

German experts have also been trying to decide the vexed question as to how really clever children may be discovered. These psychological experiments have chiefly taken place in Berlin, where several special schools for exceptionally clever children have been established. The change from the communal school to the higher schools naturally makes greater demands upon the children, as may be gathered from the one fact that in both the grammar school (*Gymnasium*) and the modern school (*Realschule*) the study of three different new languages must begin in successive years. Hence it is claimed that only really gifted children will be able to make progress in these schools; and as the customary reports of the teachers in the communal schools were only of service in estimating such details as behavior and industry, two expert psychologists were instructed to hold proficiency tests with a view to selecting children worthy of promotion. Definite problems were set in order to test as completely as possible all the important functions of the intellect, such as memory, powers of concentration, comprehension, decision, intuition, and observation. Each child examined was "placed" in the examiner's list according to the aggregate number of marks obtained in all the tests.

In order to test the ability of a candidate to learn the vocabulary of a foreign language, twelve pairs of syllables were written, two by two, upon the blackboard. When the first syllable of any pair was called out the candidate was required to write down the second. This test was not as successful as the second test, which aimed at estimating ability to combine memory and reasoning power, the criterion here being success in dealing with three logically connected words called out by the examiner. Investigation into the capacity for concentration was made by the relating of a short story to twelve children, who at the same time were set twelve easy arithmetic questions. While listening

to the story they were asked for the answers to the sums, and after a short pause they had to write down all they could remember of the short story.

A further test had for its aim to estimate the degree of the capacity for decision, the problems set including the meaning of a picture and the probable conclusion of a story broken off during its telling. Incidents of various kinds were next related, and questions as to probability and suitability were asked on points arising out of the incidents, e. g.:

A man who had been gambling in lotteries in the hope of winning something at last had neglected his business and ruined his health. When an old man he won the chief prize. What would he feel and do?

In order to analyze the capacity for intuition and observation a picture was first displayed for a short while and then the candidates were called upon to write a description of it. Next, difficult technical models were set going and the results due to their motions were asked for.

In this manner the experts claimed that the whole range of intelligence was systematically investigated on a scientific basis, and those who felt inclined to criticize the employment of experimental psychology were reminded that the tests were not concerned with the question of the individual intellectual equipment of each of the candidates examined, but solely with their suitability for selection to attend a higher school. Teachers in British schools will no doubt be interested to know that after three months' instruction the teachers in the Berlin schools concerned in the tests have concurred with few exceptions in the results arrived at by the examining psychologists.

II

While there appears, as we tried to show last week, to be a general agreement in German educational centres as to the necessity for ensuring that all suitable children should have the opportunity of proceeding to the higher schools, much discussion is going on at present as to the best means

of bringing this about. The schemes for establishing "uniform schools," described above, have caused a lively controversy; and even the special schools for "gifted scholars" from the elementary schools, are apparently viewed with misgivings. The Cologne town council have, however, been considering the questions involved, not only from the point of view of the clever children, but also with regard to the desirability of a change in the organization at the bottom of the ladder, that is, in the elementary school. After the issue of a study by one of their head-masters, that city has recently issued a pamphlet on the reform of their school system.

It is pointed out that the reform of the elementary schools must be based on two practical lessons emanating from the conditions and results of the war. First, great difficulty has been experienced in training disabled soldiers for new callings owing to the defective education they have apparently received. Next, the rural population, by such unpatriotic action as the hoarding of money instead of investing it in the War Loans, have shown a lack of comprehension of their national responsibilities. From these premises, the necessity of improving the standard of popular education is argued. One interesting and important suggestion is made to the effect that all the numerous small rural schools within a certain defined area should be abolished in favor of one efficient well-built central school.

The special committee of the Cologne town council, who laid down these general considerations, have also submitted certain concrete proposals, the most important of which relates to special instruction for elementary school children in their last year, and in the case of clever children after their fourth year, in order to facilitate their entrance to the intermediate, and ultimately to the higher school. Similar proposals have been made at Essen by a committee of the town council, but with this difference, that the establishment of special preparatory classes is opposed, as is also the idea of the advocates of the uniform-school system that the teachers themselves are able to pass judgment on their

scholars in their third or fourth school year. The Essen committee recommended that the transfer of clever children from the elementary schools to intermediate schools and higher educational establishments of all kinds should be facilitated in every possible way, but that when once the children had left the elementary school they should be allowed to fight their own way in competition with their new classmates. The establishment of new intermediate schools was advocated, as well as the provision of scholarships for elementary schoolboys who have already reached the lower classes of these schools and of the higher schools, while a special point is made of the necessity for a new modern school with four classes, and a shortened course for exceptionally gifted boys which would easily begin in their sixth year at the elementary school. It was, moreover, recognized that the elementary school system itself requires considerable overhauling, especially in the direction of reducing the numbers in each class and their coordination with continuation schools and technical schools.

As has been said, these proposals are meeting with opposition and criticism; but as a general rule the urgent necessity for reform is recognized, not only in the direction of new organization, but also in regard to special provision for the children selected for higher education. Thus, various German newspapers and periodicals contain articles insisting upon the duty of the Government and municipalities to assist these scholars, not only as heretofore with a money scholarship for their schooling, but with means of procuring books and clothes. It is also pointed out that financial security must be provided, in some way or other, during the later training period which ensues when the actual school years have come to an end. Interesting and useful statistics are to be found in the report of one of the many committees investigating this and kindred questions. It is stated that in November, 1916, 42,490 children were in attendance at 776 higher schools. Of these, 19,830—that is, 46.5 per cent—came from elementary schools; 3,319, or 8 per cent, from intermediate schools; 17,115, or 40.3 per

cent, from preparatory schools; and 2,223, or 5.2 per cent, from various preparatory establishments. Of the 19,830 children from the elementary schools, 10 per cent had been in those schools for eight years before proceeding to the higher schools, 2 per cent had been there three and a half years, and 88 per cent four years and more.

It can not be doubted, at least if one is able to judge from a study of the numerous articles that have appeared in the German newspapers and periodicals, that the current zeal for educational reform is inspired, not only by the avowed necessity for intellectual reinforcements to meet *post-bellum* conditions and tasks, but also by the considerable heart-searchings as to whether the much-vaunted German educational system has been quite as efficient as it was supposed to be. In other words, the authorities have not been satisfied with the output of the machine, as revealed by the searching test of a disastrous war. We may, therefore, in this country be permitted to feel a slight sense of satisfaction from this point of view, but at the same time we must be ready and willing to take advantage of any suggestions or innovations of value emerging from the investigations of the German educational authorities.

A note of warning must first be sounded. The majority of the German investigations and discussions have centered round the clever or specially gifted children. Now it is not the "clever" child but the average child, neither exceptionally smart nor exceptionally dull, who is to become the average citizen of this country, and any system of reform which proposed to neglect the average scholar in favor of the clever or precocious scholar would be both faulty and dangerous. A child's abilities do not always show themselves early, while, on the other hand, it is a matter of common experience that not seldom an exceptionally bright boy from the elementary school fails badly when he reaches the secondary school. The clever scholar must be encouraged in every way, but ample provision must be made for the other types. On the other hand, the natural corollary of this statement is the necessity for the increased establish-

ment of special schools or classes for extremely backward children, not necessarily mentally defective, but whose presence in a class often retards the progress of others.

Among the proposals put forward by the German experts is one which seems to be especially deserving of consideration. This is the suggestion, which has already its advocates in this country, that in a given area the large number of small rural schools usually to be found there should be abolished in favor of one large central school. The small rural school is often an expensive anomaly, and, worse still, it is often a personal tragedy, at least as regards the teacher entrusted with its charge.

Others of the German proposals, such as the better and more efficient coordination of the elementary schools with the continuation and technical schools, have been more or less anticipated by the provisions of the new Act. The main point that needs to be emphasized, however, is the plain and simple fact that the so-called ladder from the elementary school to the universities must be so strengthened and widened as to become rather a staircase, to which every scholar in this country, irrespective of his birth or social condition, may have the right of access, the only condition being the necessity of proving his fitness for the climb. With this end in view, the provision and scope of scholarships must be largely extended, as is emphasized by the German experts, and by some educational authorities in this country, so as to provide not only school fees, but ample maintenance grants for living, books, clothes, and other necessities which often prove an insuperable barrier to poor scholars whose ability and industry have won for them a place in the secondary school.

But we must not delude ourselves into thinking that this external reorganization will of itself meet all our educational demands and will prove a panacea for social and economic evils of every kind. Something else is desirable and necessary. What is above all essential is that the democracy of this country should awaken to a new conception of education—its dignity, its cultural value, its opening

of the avenue to a wider, a richer, and a more beautiful way of living one's life. Many far-reaching educational reforms are demanded by the Labor Party in their recent manifesto, *Labor and the New Social Order*, and while most thoughtful men are in agreement with these proposals, it is recognized that democracy itself must be prepared to make concessions and even sacrifices. The deep-founded heresy that any sort of status or pay is good enough for a teacher must disappear forever. The Lancashire operative must be prepared to accept cheerfully the entire abolition of the cherished half-time system, which denies to so many young children their rightful heritage of play and efficient instruction. All classes of society must recognize that the education of our children—our potential citizens—is not a private or a sectarian, but a national concern, and that only if the foundations of a wise and healthy educational system are now well and truly laid can this country hope in the future to hold its own among the nations of the earth.

VI

TRIAL OF THE NEBRASKA PROFESSORS

A REFLECTION

The trial of certain University of Nebraska professors for halting loyalty in wartime was a seven days' wonder which the country is only too glad to forget. It is safe to say that nobody is today particularly proud of his connection with it, unless it be certain yearners after the crown of martyrdom, some of whom were gratified in their ambition. The notion that it sets a precedent for public trial of doubtful or tainted professors and constitutes a mezzanine in the acropolis of human liberties which rests on the rocks of Runnymede, Magna Charta, *quia emptores*, the Massachusetts Charter, and the like, will probably prove to be an error. None of the defendants, so far as I know, had demanded a trial. Some endured extreme mental anguish and bodily suffering in consequence of it, and, if we credit our touch-and-go historical optimists, since this is to be the last war anyhow, no provision need be made for future trials, at least on the charge of disloyalty.

The rulings of the board of regents sitting as judge and jury, in fact as a star chamber, are not calculated to stand the test of time. Excuse for shortcoming on their part was not lacking. The trial was impromptu, for the cause was without precedent. Delinquencies which have succeeded in getting themselves incorporated into our public law are capable of tangible demonstration. Halting loyalty would hardly seem possible of standardization. No two citizens have probably experienced the same degree of indignation against the enemy, either before or after the declaration of war, nor has their indignation equally held out. If this demurrableness or defection of triability had occurred to the minds either of accusers or court, the trial would hardly have taken place.

On the other hand, evidence of the acts and of the admissions of the accused which occurred before the declaration of war by the United States, was excluded, apparently on the theory that such evidence would be of an *ex post facto* nature and hence prejudicial to their constitutional rights; that is to say, that its admission would accuse persons of an offense which only became such after the acts or admissions were made. They only become culpable by the fact of the declaration of war, but were not culpable while this country was at peace.

The ruling has a judicial ring and would be perfectly valid if the acts and admissions made so long ago had been the acts complained of. But they were not. The case was more in the nature of those which admit evidence of disposition to do a certain act—evidence of a continuing psychosis or mental state; and in such cases the acts and admissions of the person made prior to their qualification as criminal are quite admissible. A disloyal attitude, once established, should be presumed to continue until a change of heart, for which positive proof should be forthcoming. The immunity bath was offered to the defendants on a false theory of evidence. On this theory of legality, it would be impossible to convict anyone of a felonious state of mind, except from subsequent admissions, such as a felon is not in the habit of making. And, if such evidence be inadmissible, then a charge should not have been made which in the nature of things could not be proven.

A third criticism may be directed at the acceptance of the disclaimers of the accused at face value. This virtual ruling followed naturally from the last, the exclusion of evidence of prior culpable state of mind. It is manifest that, in the peculiar circumstances of the past year, it was difficult to find evidence of positive acts and admissions which could avail to overcome the exculpatory effect of the second and third rulings; and the result turned out accordingly. The accused tumbled over each other in their protestations of loyalty, sometimes adducing small purchases of liberty bonds, and fatherly regents were highly

gratified at this showing. The blatant pacifico copper-heads of a year ago, whose cocksureness, however, had much melted of late, now cooed as softly as sucking doves. When one considers that these gentlemen always honestly believed that they colported the true brand of patriotism, one can understand that they would not have much difficulty or compunctions in differentiating it over into enthusiastic (?) support of the war.

Anyhow, the court of regents were tickled to death at their loyal university and could now fling defiance at the able editors over the state who had accused it of near treason; while the state council of defense, who had brought the charges, waxed correspondingly wroth both at the regents and at the witnesses against the accused; for there were witnesses. In their earnest indignation at lack of **heart**y support, the state council in turn flaunted the lack of foresight and of nice discrimination which had precipitated the conflict, for their indictment was clearly demurrable. There is no justiciable crime in lukewarm patriotism or halting support of the war. Treason is a serious offense, but short of treason and sedition one goes scot free, nor can a regent court change the common sense of the common law, nor probably a statute be framed to cover so dissolving a concept of crime. These cases were clearly ones that should long previously, say shortly after the entrance of the United States into the war, have been disposed of by the university authorities in the usual course of business. Failure to do so encouraged the spread of the theory of non-resistance, which trickled into an occasional classroom utterance, perhaps, and surely into some public utterances of a rather ambiguous nature, which were eagerly pounced upon by a loyal press, intent on earning an honest living.

The formality of a public trial was decided upon as a means of allaying a public opinion fomented by sensational editors and politicians. The state university of the West wages an eternal battle with factitious criticism purposely aired in order to make political capital. This is one of the

angles from which the trial of the professors must be considered; it takes its place in a long list of tail-twisting batterings of the university. But it can not be wholly disposed of on that basis. The event rises above the commonplace. Be that as it may, the regent court was able to declare and decree that they had raked the university with a fine-tooth comb and not a single case of disloyalty of high or low degree could be discovered. This was true enough, especially if one accepts the pacifist interpretation of wholehearted support of the war.

The regent court went on virtually to declare (and here I am paraphrasing) that while they found the loyalty, as such, of the university, lily-white, they would, now that they had their hand in the job of cleaning up, fire a few professors they did not care to retain. They did not want them longer, they said, because the professors had talked too much and thus had given the editors and politicians a hold. The professors thus discharged out of hand were among the most eminent of the pacifists and were precisely the ones who had been most honest in their testimony, having refused the proffered immunity bath. When the testimony of the accused professors exonerated is compared with that of those discharged, some foundation for the kalsomining insinuations appears. Probably those discharged had not talked any more than the others.

When all is done and said, it is pretty evident that the ante-bellum pacifists of the faculty are, to a large extent, today about what they were a year ago. Pacifists may be good citizens. Every country at war is gratifyingly endowed with them. They perform a useful function, even if annoying to the militant crowd and to the government.

It must be further insisted that the regent court laid itself open to a fourth criticism; and this time in common with the state council of defense. This error was also a grave injustice; professors well known for their belligerency were inconsiderately summoned to testify against their pacifist colleagues. Again the council of defense waxed angry (while the regent court were entertained) because

the expected damnatory and incriminating evidence was decidedly not forthcoming. Did they expect a group of quiet gentlemen (who had their own opinions, to be sure) to rush into denunciation of life-long colleagues, with the result, perhaps, of depriving the latter of a livelihood? Furthermore, the war had more or less divided the faculty into opposite camps (which, curiously enough, as Censor Peregrinus¹ has well remarked, correspond roughly to the old and long infeuded democratic and aristocratic factions, the latter being belligerent) of sufficient polarity to inhibit casual exchange of views, so that, while the belligerent professors were morally persuaded of their adversaries' pacifism, they could truthfully allege no direct knowledge of overt acts and admissions.

The sad conclusion is forced upon us that not only had the state council entered upon their cleaning up labors with insufficient preparation, but they did a cruel wrong to the belligerent professorial witnesses by dragging them out and practically labelling them as accusers of their colleagues. The state council has been unwilling to stand or fall by its own accusations, but has sought to shield itself by arraying professor against professor. Apologists for the extraordinary inquisition exclaim: "I should be willing to testify against my own son, were he guilty of treason!" This objection is captivating by its clearness, but disheartening in its stupidity. The belligerent professors are certainly equal in patriotism to their academic masters and judges, and as ready to make sacrifices for their country. But there was no question of treason. The indictment was demurrable on the modified count of near treason. No crime nor offense was charged that would stand a moment's investigation. And for that were the belligerents to send their pacifist colleagues to Hades?

The unsympathetic attitude of the authorities towards the belligerent and aristocratic professors gains further light from another and separate part of the decree which certainly bulks as a fifth and most vulnerable target among

¹ *The Nation*, June 22, 1918.

the many at which criticism of the trial may be leveled. It affords a lesson in bad logic such as I hope will never again emanate from a regent court. The reader will recall that the court decided that none of the accused was guilty of halting support of the war, whatever that may be. At the same time, they took occasion to discharge three professors, the three honest pacifists. This was the logic of events. The three were a sacrifice to outside politics, to "the deep interest the people of Nebraska take in their university." But this is not the bad logic I am talking about.

The regent-court went further. They said, in effect: "The University has suffered in public estimation by the rumors that have been spread as to its disloyalty. We have proved these rumors false. There is no disloyalty of any grade, high or low, in the University of Nebraska. Therefore, we must ferret out and punish those guilty of spreading such false reports." One batch of professors had already been discharged for talking too much; another batch was now threatened with walking the plank for spreading false reports. For the shallow-pated, this program furnishes the allurements of even-handed justice. Anyone else can not fail to perceive that it is a case of political tight-rope. The indictment of the loyal professors contains a clear case of undistributed middle. The University of Nebraska was not proven to be loyal, on the trial or elsewhere, as alleged in the decree. All that came to light was an alleged failure to prove that the accused professors were disloyal. The Court perhaps thought they could get away with this bad logic, but "you can't fool all of the people all of the time."

Our paraphrase of the regent court's opinion runs into action and becomes exciting: "It is only too evident and needs no further proof that the persons who have brought down popular indignation upon our University are, and in the nature of the case must be, those professors who, from the beginning of the war, have preached on all occasions the necessity of supporting the President in his armed

opposition to the fifty-year premeditated Prussian Blood Bath. If they had not done their best to rally the forces in the University (and outside) to the cause for which we are fighting, no one would ever have suspected that the University was a nest of pacifists." This jesuitry is reminiscent of the Dreyfus case. It may be suggested that the pacifist professors were somewhat guilty also, by their getting up of a separate petition of qualified loyalty. This in the interest, mind you, of real democracy, mother of quietism, as opposed to aristocracy, the latter figuring somehow in the particularistic creed, as blameworthy on general principles for any fighting that may happen. The regents were perhaps thinking of those lamb-like mobs of Bolsheviki that Lincoln Steffens pictures to us as trotting sweetly about the streets of Petrograd!

Consequently and consistently, the regent court picked out two professors of very long standing who were well known for their pro-war convictions, two who had written and lectured early and late and all the time, at risk to their persons and in the face of manifold threats by the Huns within our gates, in favor of supporting the President in the war, and decreed that those professors might consider themselves dismissed from the university, unless they could disprove the charge of spreading false reports against their colleagues, many of whom, I morally believe, are just as pacifist today as they ever were.

This, then, was the Hindoo sacrifice that the belligerent regents had felt constrained to throw to the one or two pacifist members of the Board, in order to purchase the latter's consent to the immolation of the self-convicted pacifist professors! The former must have felt that the pedagogical ship was indeed fast sinking, when they yielded to the demand to throw overboard the two best sailors for a joy ride on the pacifist submarines!

Perhaps it were better to pass over these petty politics, and leave them in oblivion, as I hinted at the beginning. The times were and are extraordinary, and one is not surprised that many of us should not at once rise equal to them.

All of the parties to the Nebraska drama were doing their duty according to their best lights, and the logic of events will eventually so mould their ideas that they will, on the one hand, be glad of the grand finale when it occurs on the world's stage, and, on the other, be satisfied with their own part. Such is the protective coloring of our past deeds at the bar of our consciences!

But the trial of the Nebraska professors was really an event of historical importance and on that account deserving of record. Whether it established guilt or innocence or change of civic heart on the part of Tom, Dick, or Harry, or not, is of little consequence. But it is significant of the process of humanizing and democratising that is going on in this country, and specifically, in those parts that, until twenty-five years ago, bore a decidedly frontier aspect.

Pioneers build character and individuality, but they are lacking in sociableness or fitness to get along in a crowd. This deficiency is a patent fault and most hard to remedy. Speaking by and large, I should call it a characteristic failing of the Anglo-Saxon race, which, for a couple of thousand years, has been busy staking off for itself the isolated islands and continents of the earth. Thus the frontiersman spells an isolation within an isolation, and acquires a mentality all his own. Suspicion and a fixed idea that persons hailing from thickly settled sections think themselves better and are aristocratic, form a notable part of this creed of the wilderness. The trapper who concluded to move on because a family had settled fifty miles away, was of this type. There are individuals in whom this prejudice is practically ineradicable. The person on whom it has laid its blight will cling to it in spite of the widest opportunities of travel and education and in face of the possession of first-class abilities. Thus it is inevitable that, looking upon social men as stuck up, he naturally affects to despise them as aristocrats and to approve of himself as a democrat. In truth, the affectation is unconsciously on the side of the *ci-devant* frontiers-

man—at the bottom of his heart he knows that there is in the stranger a social adaptability which he does not possess, and the consciousness of a deficiency he can not remedy is a very natural source of vexation and of a desire to call names and to throw the blame for anything and everything on the sociable fellow.

The University of Nebraska faculty, like those of other western universities (and some eastern also), was divided into belligerents and pacifists. The cleavage was an old one under a new name. Substitute democrats and aristocrats, or westerners and easterners, you arrive at the same two groups of persons, according to some authorities. The easterners, however, did not accept the title of aristocrats. The westerners who called the easterners names did not count up one-half of all the westerners, the rest not sharing their prejudices nor their deficiency of cosmopolite quality. Thus the vilipending westerners composed only a small minority of the faculty, but a very militant, touchy, and cocksure minority; and it is their psychology alone that is under review. Because of an inbred tendency to isolation, they have suffered in their broad social sympathies, while arrogating to themselves a monopoly of the same. They lean toward the enemies of their country from sheer distrust of their own countrymen, coupled, of course, with the ignorance of the national danger which their hard-shell policy engenders. To appeal to democracy to suppress a war which is essentially carried on to make democracy safe, and to label as aristocrats men who fortunately have escaped the particularistic tradition, are rather vulgar and familiar forms of self-deception. It is to be lamented that college professors should not rise above them.

JURISCONSULTUS

VII

DISCUSSION

THE ATTITUDE OF OUR TEXTBOOKS TOWARD ENGLAND

An English editor, at the Conference on the Foreign Relations of the United States last year, remarked that "to an Englishman perhaps the most striking fact of the moment is that, while America and England are allies for the first time, they are not yet friends. * * * * We are told that a good deal of it is due to the teaching of history in your schools." There is no doubt that his information was correct, sad as that must be to us today. I have a friend, a typical western citizen, who could never be convinced that England is today fighting for an ideal or that she has done her share in the war. Incontrovertible facts—that an American army proportionate to the one in England would mean eleven million men; or that she was, before our entry, bearing one-fourth of the total cost of the war—make no impression upon him, and he hates to think that his sons are to fight side by side with the Englishmen. He is, I think, a fair type of many good Americans today.

That attitude is due almost entirely to the training given to our children from our history textbooks. It is an attitude which would have been comprehensible in the generation immediately following the War of the Revolution, or the War of 1812; but that it still exists, in the face of the liberal reputation which England has been steadily increasing in the past century, is somewhat surprising, and only to be explained as the result of an overemphasized nationalistic teaching of history. The result of such a course has been painfully brought home to us in our own day by the support of the German people to their

rulers in the present war. In America such a result is not possible, because too rigidly checked by democracy; but we can find many examples of such a tendency in our history. But perhaps the greatest damage done has been in our attitude toward England, and its possible future effect.

Naturally, the Revolutionary War left us with a bitter feeling toward England. It has been fed by our historians who paint with glowing colors the oppressive tyranny whose yoke our forefathers threw off in '76. But, as a matter of fact, judged by the standard of the day, English crimes were not heinous—in fact, compared with the Hungarian or Polish, or even with the French peasant, the American settler was a plutocrat, a demigod. English historians plead in extenuation the newness of colonial government, the standards of the day, and that America was better represented than England; but they nevertheless explicitly admit that England was in the wrong, and that the colonies were justified in rebellion. And in so doing they teach us a lesson, for they could easily have increased the discord between the two nations by arguing the happier condition of the American colonist, and his base ingratitude in rebelling. They not only have admitted that they were wrong, but they have profited by the lesson: the abolition of the mercantile system and the great reform acts of the 19th century prove that. An English ambassador some years later thanked America in a public speech for showing England the road. But for this generous acknowledgment our books give her no credit—we are left to believe that she is still following her old vicious courses. Why? We can justify our revolution sufficiently without blacking the face of our opponent.

Our treatment of the loyalists, both at the time and in our histories, is another example. The loyalists were not generously treated—of that there can be no doubt, and the Canadian historians will not admit they were even justifiably treated. Moreover, American historians, if they will not admit that the Revolution was carried out by a

minority, must admit that there was a large minority opposed to it, comprising many of the best citizens. Yet they excoriate the loyalists in most bitter terms, as in Muzzey's school text: "in the breasts of American patriots the thought of the Tories aroused bitter memories. It was not alone their jibes and insults, their vilification of the character of Washington and of his associates, their steady encouragement of desertion and mutiny in the American army, or their own appearance in the uniform of the King's troops. Congress remembered how * * * while Washington's starving and shivering army at Valley Forge was losing more men by desertion daily than it was gaining by recruiting, the Tory drawing-rooms of Philadelphia were gay with festivities in honor of the British officers. It was a hard thing to ask the new country * * * to recompense the men who had done their utmost to wreck the patriot cause—men whom even the careful tongue of Washington had called 'detestable parricides'!"

We can afford to be more generous to a defeated foe, if not at the time, certainly after the heat of conflict is past.

Concerning the War of 1812, we are not so outspoken. No one, unless it be Canada, recalls that war with any pride. It has been revealed since that we fought the wrong party—that England conceded in fact what Napoleon merely conceded in words. But our historians do not point out our mistake, or give England credit for what she actually did; instead, they point to the glorious victories on the seas. They forget that England was engaged at that time in a life and death struggle, comparable to the one of today; and that, just as in the War of Revolution, when she had had to fight Spain as well as America, she was unable to give her full attention to the colonies. Yet the American youngster is taught to believe that the vast might of the British Empire crumbled before the valor of the American settler; and that England can make no stand against America. We are properly grateful to France, at the expense of England, for her help in the Revolution; but we forget that France did us as much harm as did

England in our next war, even more, for she did not keep her promise, and forced us into a mistake for which we do not apologize today. The result of such teachings has been more than once evidenced in our dealings with England, notably during the Civil War. Lord Lyon reported that his chief difficulty was "the persuasion which prevails even with sensible men that no outrage will compel England to make war with the North,"—an arrogant attitude inculcated by the teachings of our histories. It was mostly the tact of the Prince Consort and of Lord Lyon which prevented war at that time.

On the whole, England has acted very generously toward a people against whom she might be expected to entertain some rancor. The first of the modern arbitration treaties was the Jay Treaty of 1794, for which England deserves at least as much credit as we—perhaps more, for the treaty was severely censured in America. The Oregon boundary was adjusted, in the face of the chauvinistic cry of "54 40' or Fight;" the Alabama claims were arbitrated, as have been, in fact, all Anglo-American disputes which diplomacy was unable to handle. England has with us marched at the head of the peace movement—a policy which has done more than any other, perhaps, to regain our good opinion for her.

Now let us look for a moment at the other side of it—a side which was imprest upon me with a distinct shock as a student at Oxford University, for it had been distinctly lacking in my public school and even college training. To foreign students of history there is not an expansion of our territory, proud as we are and unselfish as we claim to be in our policy, which is not regarded abroad, more so in Germany and France than in England, as a piece of sharp work, if not a high-handed robbery. If you speak to an Englishman of his treatment of the Boers he will compare it with the annexation of Texas, and the analogy is striking. A natural movement of colonists, who came into collision with their new government, and called upon their own mother country for aid, as, they say, was done

in our Mexican War. Lord Durham, in his Report upon the Canadian Rebellion of 1837, expressed a fear that the same sort of an attempt would be made upon Canada! Or if you speak to a German about the famous seizure of Silesia, he would look at you in amazement, or perhaps chuck you jovially in the ribs and refer you with a sympathetic pride to the theft of Panama in 1903. You say that it was a rebellion with which we are not concerned, and that Panama was recognized as an independent state. Yes, and very smooth, he would reply; but who prevented the Colombian troops from landing to put down an otherwise hopeless revolution? and who recognized it as independent before an opportunity of putting it down could be taken? Or if you speak to a Frenchman regarding the taking of Algeria he will point you to the Spanish-American War. Humanitarian motives—bleeding Cuba? Bah! he replies, pure hypocrisy—look what you got out of it: We may be conscious of the purity of our own motives, tho a little dubious in one or two cases perhaps; but to the world outside the dollar mark is the American emblem, and it does not pay to set ourselves too high above others.

Our textbooks are too one-sided—our history needs to be set up against the background of world history. So far it has been nationalistic rather than impartial. Besides failing in the first duty of the historians—impartial truth—and besides being unfair to England and boosting our own self-conceit, its results upon the future, unless checked, are apt to be disastrous. If we hope that we are now entering upon an era of peace, our efforts should be directed, not toward stirring up animosities and unpleasant memories, but toward building up a fraternal spirit between the two great Anglo-Saxon nations. They two, working together, could almost alone establish peace in the world, certainly can give it a mighty impetus. But they can not do it if our coming generations are to be taught that the England of today is the same as the England of 1776. In some respects, she is far more democratic than America; certainly we can afford to work with her without

fear of demeaning ourselves. It is too late to remedy the present unfortunate feeling—we can only hope that it will be dissipated in common action; but we can begin at once preparing for the future. America can be, and is, justly proud of her record. But we came into the world at a time when democracy was just beginning to triumph, and when the temptations of the monarchical period were disappearing. It is to our great credit that we have forwarded the movement; but history ought not to set up on a Pharisaic pedestal, looking down upon those nations who were living among the slow-changing traditions of their past, and especially upon the nation, who, long before we came to birth, was the leader of this movement toward democracy.

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VIII

REVIEWS

An ethical philosophy of life. By FELIX ADLER. D. Appleton & Company, New York. 1918. 380 p. \$3.00.

"What this book offers is a system of thought and of points of view as to conduct, as these have jointly grown out of a personal experience." In this sentence, the first of the first chapter, the author discloses the purpose and character of his work. The book is unique in that its system of thought is intimately connected with the personal spiritual history of its author. The first section of the book is thus given over to the story of the writer's pilgrimage from the faith of his ancestors thru consideration of various creeds, religious and philosophical, to an ethical philosophy of life, of which he has been the distinguished champion for many years. This part of the book is, in fact, his *apologia pro mia vita*. It is characterized by a sweet reasonableness that makes it excellent reading. Whatever may be the defects he finds in the faith of Jew or Christian, they are not set forth in a spirit of irritating dogmatism. Tho it may seem to Christians, for example, that in some ways he has not done complete justice to the essential teaching or personality of Jesus, nor to the essential character of the Christianity of today, yet one feels that it would be easy to discuss the differences with the writer, and while continuing to differ with him, still hold him in respect and friendship.

The basis of this system is found in the second part of his book, which is in the main a criticism of Kant's *Ethical philosophy*. In this he discusses Kant's fundamental principle of the universal sense of the ought, and its categorical imperative, questioning, even denying the universality of the one and exposing the defects of the other. In place of these the basis of ethics is found in the worthwhileness of

human personality, and its essential inviolability. The questions aroused by the affirmation of this principle, as to its origin and its validity as a necessary principle, opens up the whole problem of epistemology. The principle derived, however, seems to hold for the author in ethics a place analogous to the principle of uniformity in physical science. Each is a necessary presupposition of its corresponding field of thought and practical action, and is implied in all thinking and doing in their respective fields. Thus the principle of personality is no less real in dealing with men, than that of uniformity in dealing with things.

At the basis of our labor troubles lies this principle, violated on the one hand, pushing ceaselessly toward realization on the other. Democracy is its implicit affirmation. The present World War may be regarded as an endeavor to prevent the violation of personality and further its up-building. Nationalism and internationalism are modes of its expression. Socialism is an endeavor in the same direction, tho its methods are not well chosen and its outcome may prove to involve the violation of its implicit principle.

Personality being the only thing of supreme value, it exists only in and thru social relations. Social structure exists for this, as does each individual. The imperative that necessarily follows is: "Act so as to elicit the best in others and thereby in thyself."

The inevitable frustrations of life in sickness, sorrow, and sin are shown by the author to be means by the use of which the reality of the supreme worth of personality may be revealed and achieved.

The remaining two parts of the book are applications of this fundamental principle. No matter what one may conclude as to the soundness of this principle, the chapters of these portions of the book are replete with wisdom of life.

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The Advanced Montessori Method—I. Spontaneous Activities in Education.
II. The Montessori Elementary Material. By MARIA MONTESSORI.
Frederick H. Stokes Company. 355 and 464 p. \$2.00 each or \$3.50 in set.

The announcement that Dr. Montessori was ready to publish the results of her experiments in the field of elementary education, stirred renewed interest in her work in all countries. Her preceding experiments had been conducted in two fields: first, with sub-normal and defective children, using materials and methods suggested by Seguin some fifty years ago in his work in France and in this country; and later with normal children of pre-school age, where she employed the same methods and materials which she had used with such success in the education of the feeble-minded and idiot children in Rome in 1898.

The results of these two experiments were heralded far and wide in most sensational terms, one magazine announcing them as practically wonder working in their results in teaching children of four years to read and write. The two books describing these experiments were her *Educational Anthropology* and *The Montessori Method*. In these earlier writings Dr. Montessori had acknowledged her indebtedness to Seguin's writings and to the experiments which he had initiated as early as 1846, and to the three great Italian masters in anthropology, Sergi, Lombroso and De Giovanni.

Her latest publication, *The Advanced Montessori Material*, is in two volumes: the first called *Spontaneous Activities in Education*; the second, *The Montessori Elementary Material*. The two volumes are related in that the first seems to be the theoretical statement of the principles underlying the practise laid down in such minute detail in the second. In the latter volume we find a complete guide as to curriculum and methods to be used with children from five and a half to seven and a half or eight years of age. That nothing may escape the reader the book is fully illustrated with pictures of all the materials and devices created by the author in order to make it possible for

her principle of "auto-education" to be carried on from the kindergarten period into that of the elementary school.

The first volume, *Spontaneous Activities in Education*, deserves a careful reading from all teachers in the kindergarten and elementary school. In this, as in her earlier volume, *The Montessori Method*, the reader feels the lack of organization, many of the chapters impressing one as separate articles written at different times for conventions and magazines, somewhat loosely thrown together in book form.

The opening chapter, A Survey of a Child's Life, at once puts one in close sympathy with little children, as the author brings to our consciousness, in a graphic manner, the fact that children are born into a world fashioned to meet the comfort, convenience and needs of adults. She describes them as "frail pilgrims in an unknown world," in which they are a decided misfit, and to which they must be gradually adjusted. She asks us to imagine how "we would feel if we should find ourselves among a race of giants with legs immensely long and bodies enormously large in comparison with ours, people extraordinarily intelligent as compared with ourselves." This comparison is continued until the dullest reader can not fail to be impressed with our inability to look upon children as members of society from birth, with rights which are ignored, because we fail to see them in the light of their present potentialities and future promise.

The two chapters, A Survey of Modern Education and My Contribution to Educational Science, in which she compares the work being done in other fields with her own, are of little interest to American educators, as she illustrates her points with extreme cases which we take for granted as being no longer accepted in theory, even though one must acknowledge that they have not wholly disappeared in school practice. She thus describes the aim of such schools, "To dominate the child, to bring him into subjection, to make him obedient. This is the basis of education. If this can be done by any means, even by

violence, all the rest will follow. * * * * It is what is called educating the will of the child."

In the chapters on *The Preparation of the Teacher and Environment*, we have again her plea for an environment, so carefully selected and equipt with educative stimuli that a child may be left free to pick and choose his own problems for solution, educating himself with the self-corrective apparatus which will free him from the domination of the teacher. In this environment the child is provided with the right instruments which will make it possible for him, in the words of Comenius, "to learn more and be taught less." This means a new preparation for the teacher. As the process of education is being carried on by the child himself this sets the teacher free to observe, record and study the child so that she may guide him more intelligently, when the moment for her share in the process of learning arrives. The educative processes are self-initiated and self-perpetuated, as far as the child is concerned, and the teacher has the difficult art of self-restraint, guiding only when the child is moving in the wrong direction.

Those of us who do not agree with Dr. Montessori in the ingenious materials and devices which she has invented, in order that the child may learn the interesting art of "auto-education," must acknowledge that she has, as no predecessor, succeeded in bringing to our attention the practicability of freedom and independence in the classroom, where autocracy and subjection have been at their high-water mark.

While many of us feel that in her effort to free the child from the dominance of the teacher, Dr. Montessori has nevertheless shut the child in a circle of narrow and mechanical, self-corrective materials which equally curtail his liberty in another way, this principle, when applied with better materials, gives promise of a new era in education. This will bring to teachers a new responsibility, not the nerve-racking, unlovely task of keeping unwilling, immature slaves at work by the sheer will power of the task-

master; but the far subtler problem of discovering what children can work upon most productively, with the minimum of external force, and the maximum of interest, self-effort and concentration.

This brings us to the chapters on the psychology of attention, will, intelligence and imagination. The prevailing motive of all but the last is a plea for wider liberty, more opportunities for decision, choice and self-direction in child-life. The conception of liberty here, as elsewhere in Dr. Montessori's books, is open to serious criticism, in spite of the fact that it is undoubtedly her greatest contribution to modern education. It has been said that she presents nothing new on freedom in the schoolroom, nothing which has not been said by all revolutionary thinkers from Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Froebel down to Professor Dewey, but she puts her thought so passionately that he who runs may read. Indeed, it may be said that it is presented more passionately than logically, for if one chooses to be critical, it would be an easy task to prove that the logical outcome of her theory would lead to a society based upon independence rather than interdependence. She says in one place, "He who is served is limited in his independence. * * * * * This idea must be gained before men can feel themselves to be really free." If we acted upon this theory it would take a Thoreau in his shack in the forest to apply her theory logically and practically.

The chapter on Attention is disappointing, as she could have presented her own case far more strongly. Much that is valuable is vaguely hinted, and rather tantalizingly touched upon, but left unsaid. What she might have said is that when the attention of the child is held by the problem which he is solving thru self-application, concentration makes the teacher's bug-bear of holding the child's attention disappear. She could have made clear the fact that what we are searching for in the schoolroom today is some means preserving the natural concentration of young

children by providing materials which suggest problems and projects which both stimulate and hold attention.

The chapter on Imagination seems to reveal the weakest point in the Montessori system, tho it must be acknowledged that it has some timely warnings to teachers who have over-stimulated the native fancy and imagination of young children. The tendency of the child to "make believe" is frowned upon as a dangerous policy to encourage. It is viewed from the standpoint of "illusion" in the insane. Not only in theory, but in practise, is this tendency attacked and starved. While Dr. Montessori readily acknowledges that the fanciful imagination is characteristic of early childhood, unlike other modern educators, she argues against its use. She accounts for its predominance at this stage of child life by the ignorance and credulity characteristic of these early years. It is inexperience, the absence of reality which causes it to develop. From her point of view a child who is familiar with a real horse would have no need to play with a stick horse. Fancy is not an evidence of the child's first freedom from the domination of sense—perception, as some psychologists would have us believe—not mental wings, but a temporary mental handicap which must be shed as soon as possible. While her position in the fanciful imagination is extreme, she gives here a sane criticism of those who selfishly prolong the child's naive faith in the fairy, the giant or dwarf, when the child is trying to outgrow and clear up his own conceptions of difference between fact and fancy. She says, "We are amused by the illusions, the ignorance and the errors of the immature mind. * * * * * In short, it is we who are amused by the Christmas festivities and the credulity of the child. If the credulity of children ceased, a great pleasure would be taken from our lives." This is the best point made in this chapter, which is really the keynote of her whole educational scheme. She explains that it is paucity of mentality which causes fancy and make-believe—mental poverty.

This view of imagination explains the absence of stories

and games in her curriculum, the slight emphasis on art, songs and music. Toys are "foolish and degrading," games are styled as "foolish" and stories as "silly." She says, "Is the illusory imagination based upon crudelity a thing we ought to develop in young children?" We certainly have no wish to see it persist; in fact, when we are told that a child "no longer believes in fairy tales, we rejoice." But she does not stop here. All joyous imaginative play with objects is ruled out. Every effort of the child to transform material thru imagination is curtailed. She is in direct contrast to Froebel in this, as he provided such materials as clay, paint and blocks, that the child might have every opportunity to give rein to his natural tendencies in this direction. Clay is transformed into bird or beast; paint into flowers, trees and sky; blocks into trains or towers. Montessori's materials, on the other hand, stay in the realm of the actual; cylinders remain cylinders, and all that can be done with them is to find the correct inset for the cylinders of differing sizes to fit. This shuts out the child's joyous play life and develops the type of mind condemned by Wadsworth in his *Peter Bell*.

The last volume in which Dr. Montessori attempts to apply all her theories will prove dry and uninteresting reading after the first volume. It goes into endless detail in describing her scheme of materials for teaching the technique of grammar, reading, arithmetic, geometry, drawing, music and metrics. What she plans to have the child learn in the technique of these subjects is overwhelming. She has thought out most ingenious devices to accomplish these ends, and all that can be said for them is that they employ the method of self-instruction which makes it possible for the child to feel free and independent in the pursuit of these ends, with very slight assistance from the teacher.

If Dr. Montessori is right in her interpretation of child nature and needs, then all the great thinkers in the realm of education today are wrong. These would unanimously

agree that the young child has no need for the endless detail of technical knowledge of grammar and mathematics which she has set for his acquirement. Nor can the child from five and a half to eight years of age be developed naturally thru the ingenious but artificial mechanics which she has devised as the means for the acquisition of this extraneous information.

The experiments with the Montessori elementary material are too recent to report upon as to final results. But the artificial association of a different color with each article of speech and with numbers in the teaching of grammar and mathematics undoubtedly set up associations which sooner or later must be dissociated before these acquirements can be carried over and used in the transactions of daily life. In fact, much of the psychology underlying both the theory and practise of Dr. Montessori are of the old faculty type, based upon a well-nigh discarded faith in the doctrine of formal discipline. What she plans for the child's self-acquisition is out of keeping with all present-day psychology and pedagogy, a reversion to curriculums of the past which were resigned when scientific child study taught us their futility.

Dr. Montessori's principles of liberty and auto-education will outlive her curriculums and materials, and it is to be hoped that some discriminating disciple will arise, who will preserve these enduring principles, discarding, however, those artificial and spectacular devices which have blinded the eyes of the uncritical to the fact that the ends sought are unworthy, both from the standpoint of their usefulness in the child's life, and their value to society.

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Méthodologie des langues vivantes. By CHARLES SCHWEITZER and EMILE SIMONNOT. Paris: Armand Colin, 1917. 296 p. Fr. 3.50 plus 20 p. c.

This book on the direct method of modern language teaching may seem from its table of contents mainly a

re-presentation of a system which has already been many times described and discusst. It is that, to be sure, but it is something more, for it differs in matter and in manner from most of the works which have preceded it,—in matter by giving an unusually complete view of the method as a whole, as applied to the whole period of instruction, so that it shows not only the process which is the basis and starting point, but the progress and proportion of the work, a thing which has often been lacking in manuals which expound only the method.

It differs in manner by assuming that the controversial period has past. The authors have accordingly abandoned the aggressive and defensive tone which has characterized most earlier exponents of the direct method, and adopted a discriminating and judicial attitude which is more agreeable and, paradoxically, more persuasive. Their assumption may be slightly premature, but the atmosphere of cool consideration after the heat of battle is refreshing, and constructive by its rejection of extremes and its development of applications to strengthen and clarify theories. The unconverted—and undoubtedly such still exist—will still regard the authors as enthusiasts, but can not charge them with blind enthusiasm or fanaticism.

An introductory sketch of the history of the reform movement is followed by a chapter on the difference between the conditions of the acquisition of the mother tongue and a foreign language, with the conclusions that must be drawn in this connection. Succeeding chapters treat separately the questions of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and literature, and finally the conduct of the class. The chapters on the teaching of pronunciation and grammar are notably clear, sane, and complete. Emphasis on the distinction between phonetics and phonetic transcription, and on their respective functions, carries a merited and explicit rebuke to those who exaggerate the place of the latter in instruction. Questions which come to mind as one reads the chapters on the acquisition of vocabulary might be answered by a somewhat more definite indica-

tion of the amount of text which it is intended to cover at successive stages of the study.

The chief defect of the work as a complete presentation of a course of instruction is the absence of definite indication of the amount and kind of work required of the student outside the classroom. A study of the text which is first explained in class may be taken for granted, and a review of the contents of notebooks; some written exercises are indicated, but on the whole the reader is left altogether too much in the dark about what the student is expected or permitted to do when not under the direct supervision of the teacher. It should be said in this connection that the encouragement of independent reading by advanced pupils receives proper attention.

Considered as a contribution to the solution of problems of modern language instruction in America, this work has, as already indicated, the advantage of moderation and discrimination. Further, it sets forth with exceptional clearness and definiteness the conditions under which this method is designed to be successfully applied. Much of the discussion on the subject has been at cross-purposes in the failure to define such conditions. Messrs. Schweitzer and Simonnot state very frankly that the aim of the instruction is utilitarian, that the pupils will begin at the age of ten or eleven, that they should remain under the same teacher (or at least, we may assume, in the same school) for six or seven years, and that the teacher should have the advantage of extended acquaintance with the country whose language he is to teach. Almost the only fundamental condition which seems parallel on both sides of the Atlantic is the size of the classes, which seems to be about the same. Nevertheless, this book will be both interesting and useful to the teacher who is seeking to adapt the method here described to the age of our pupils, the length of the course, the change from school to college (after written examinations) at the end of two or three years of work, and the fact that the academic tradition as opposed to the utilitarian view has not yet been entirely abandoned.

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Professor Thomas Erskine Holland of Oxford has long held a commanding position among students of international law. Not only for that reason, but because of their bearing upon problems that are now uppermost in the mind of the world, there should be a careful reading of his volume entitled *Laws on war and neutrality* that has recently been published. (London: Longmans, Green & Company. 1916. 243 p. 7/6.)

In *The ways of war* there are brought together a number of delightful literary studies of the happenings of the past four years by Professor T. M. Kettle, Lieutenant in the 9th Dublin Fusileers. The author was one of the most brilliant of young Irishmen, and he felt profoundly the call of duty and of opportunity when the German attack on Belgium and on France began. On July 14, 1916, he sailed for France and on August 9 following he met his death from a bullet from the Prussian Guard within thirty yards of Ginchy. The book is marked by pathos and beauty, both of thought and of phrase. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1917. 246 p. \$1.50.)

It is not without interest to get hold of a book which the German government permits to be widely circulated at home, but whose exportation is strictly forbidden. Such a book is *Deductions from the world war*, by Baron von Freytag-Loringhoven, Lieutenant-General and Deputy-General of the German imperial staff. The reader of this intensely human document will find no basis for the illusion that the ruling forces in Germany can be brought to support a plan of international organization that shall shape international justice and make possible international peace. Here is a setting out of the doctrine of war for war's sake, both military and economic. That this is the German aim and the ruling German motive is beyond all controversy. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1918. 212 p. \$1.25.)

Still another war book is *A Contemporary gentleman in France*, being home letters from an officer at the front.

They make excellent reading. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1918. 263 p. \$1.50.)

During the winter of 1917-1918 one of the most distinguished visitors to America was General Radiguet, who commanded the Twenty-first Division of the French Army at the battle of the Marne. He has left behind him a capital book for young American officers and soldiers to read and study in *The making of a modern army*. The book is based on General Radiguet's long experience and upon his study of actual conditions on the French front during the years from 1914-1917. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1918. 163 p. \$1.50.)

Mr. L. H. Bailey has written a strong and readable book entitled *Universal service, the hope of humanity*. (New York: Sturgis & Walton Company. 1918. 165 p. \$1.25.)

A very elaborate study of the theory and practise of retiring allowances and pension systems for government employees has been made by Mr. Lewis Meriam in his book entitled *Principles governing the retirement of government employees*. The book is one of the publications of the institute for government research. (New York: D. Appleton & Sons. 1918. 476 p. \$2.75.)

For a great many schools, libraries and homes, particularly such as are not able to afford the expense of some of the larger and more costly books of reference, the new series known as *The world book: Organized knowledge in story and picture*, will be found of much use. The editor-in-chief is Professor O'Shea, of the University of Wisconsin, and he and his immediate associates have had the co-operation of 150 men of science, teachers, artists and public men in both the United States and Canada. The material is selected with more than usual reference to schoolroom needs and the treatment of the thousands of topics is such as to make these volumes easy reading for large numbers of people. We have tested the accuracy and practical value of the book by reference made at random to several

score of articles. The work appears to be well done and the book deserves praise as a satisfactory, easily handled work of general reference. (Chicago: The World Book. 1918. 8 vols. 6528 p.)

In *Education: Selective, specific, compensatory*, Mr. Michael West, of the Indian Educational Service, has written a book that teachers in India still need and which students of Indian education will do well to consult. (New York: Longmans, Green & Company. 1917. 223 p. \$1.25.)

Few Americans are well informed regarding the history of British India, altho it is a topic full of romance and interest. In *The expansion of British India*, Professor Anderson, of Bombay, offers a treatment which is rather scientific than literary of his subject, but which abounds in accurate information and will stimulate further study. (London: G. Bell & Sons. 1918. 196 p. 4/6.)

In *Cooperation: The hope of the consumer*, by Emerson P. Harris, we have one of those books which perplex because it is so obviously well-intentioned and at the same time, in some respects, so impracticable. That the field of cooperation has as yet been most imperfectly cultivated is plain, and that the public interest will be aided by its greater development is most likely. On the other hand, the whole process of economic distribution rests upon implied factors of climate, topography and population which simply will not permit the elimination of the so-called middleman. The middleman has a part to play, and an important one, even in the best-organized economic state. Students in cooperation will do well to take more complete account of this obvious fact and give attention, not to the elimination of the middleman, but to his greater economic and social effectiveness. (New York. The Macmillan Company. 1918. 328 p. \$2.00.)

Mr. Henry Carter, of Harrow, has written an unusually important book to describe the action of the government respecting the drink question during the war, both as concerns legislation and administration. His book is entitled

The control of the drink trade and is a mine of well-ordered and accurate information. (New York: Longmans, Green & Company. 1918. 324 p.)

A popular treatment of energy as that term is used in modern science will be found in the volume entitled *Theories of energy*, by Horace Perry, who has written his preface from San Francisco. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1918. 231 p. \$1.75.)

A very different sort of book, and one which recalls the author's first contribution to contemporary literature a generation ago, is *The science of power*, by Benjamin Kidd. This is an analysis from a novel point of view of the ruling forces that are at work in the world. One need not agree with it to appreciate it and to gain benefit from its reading. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1918. 318 p. \$1.50.)

Among American psychologists Professor Woodworth holds an honorable place by reason not only of his scholarship and productivity, but because of his good judgment and sanity. In his Jesup Lectures, delivered at the American Museum of Natural History in 1917, he took as his topic *Dynamic psychology* and the lectures are now brought together in a well-printed book. They offer perhaps the best compendious treatment there is of the contemporary psychological view-point and method. (New York: Columbia University Press. 1918. 210 p. \$1.50.)

It is not easy to put together between the covers of one volume a summary of the *History of Europe*, but Professor A. J. Grant, of the University of Leeds, attempted this some years ago and the success of his effort was sufficient to lead to the present appearance of a new and enlarged edition. The book is plainly intended for English schools. (London: Longmans, Green & Company. 778 p. \$2.75.)

Students of Chaucer and his period will be glad to have their attention directed to an excellent source book. It is entitled *Illustrations of Chaucer's England*, edited by Dorothy

Hughes. (New York: Longmans, Green & Company. 302 p. \$2.50.)

Miss Naomi Norsworthy, sometime Professor of Psychology at Teachers College, Columbia University, was a woman of unusual power as well as charm. Her strength was not equal to the demands of her earnest intellectual and ethical life and she passed from earth while still a young woman. We cordially welcome a charming memoir of Miss Norsworthy by Frances Caldwell Higgins, and are sure that any one of Miss Norsworthy's many friends and pupils will not willingly be without a copy of it. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1918. 243 p. \$1.50.)

A useful textbook for secondary schools is *Modern European civilization*, by Roscoe L. Ashley, of Pasadena, California. The scope of the book is from the 17th century to the present time. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1918. 326 p. \$1.20.)

An exceptionally good treatment of a subject which it is not easy to discuss in this form is to be found in *Organized banking* by Professor Eugene E. Agger, of Columbia University. The contents of the book have been gone over in academic work and their practical character has thereby been put to a severe test. The appendices are voluminous and most useful since they contain not only the text of the Federal Reserve Act, but the regulations of the Federal Reserve Board. (New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1918. 385 p. \$3.00.)

The real business of living is the attractive title of a book by Professor James H. Tufts, of the University of Chicago. It was suggested to the author by the language of the deed of gift by which Phillips Andover Academy was founded. The author's treatment involves the drawing upon the topics of ethics, politics and sociology in almost equal measure. (New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1918. 476 p. \$1.50.)

The publishers of the Atlantic Monthly are bringing out in attractive volumes several selections of material that originally appeared in that magazine. The latest is entitled *Atlantic Narratives*, a collection of modern short stories edited with an introduction by Mr. Charles S. Thomas, of the Newton High School. (Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press. 1918. 350 p.)

In the excellent hope of making the life and character of Lee more real to the generation of young Americans now growing up, J. G. de R. Hamilton and Mary T. Hamilton, of Chapel Hill, North Carolina, have united in writing *The life of Robert E. Lee* in a form that should be particularly attractive to boys and girls. The result is a readable and most interesting account of a really great American personality. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1917. 208 p. \$1.25.)

An inspiring book that is highly practical in its lessons is *Schools with a perfect score*, by George W. Gerwig, Secretary of the Board of Education, of Pittsburgh, Pa. The author has written down out of his love for children those things which he has found in the minds and hearts and souls of good Americans. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1918. 194 p. \$1.10.)

A beautifully made series of books entitled *Industrial art textbooks*, by Miss Snow and Mr. Froelich, has just been added to the apparatus for the use of teachers of art in schools. These books offer a graded course in art in relation to industry and they are better done and more attractively illustrated than any books that have ever come to our notice. (Boston: The Prang Company. 8 Parts.)

The latest book on *The vocational education of girls and women* is by Albert H. Leake, of Toronto, and is a satisfactory presentation of the subject. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1918. 430 p. \$1.60.)

IX

NOTES AND NEWS

San Francisco school survey Bulletin 46, Series of 1917, of the United States Bureau of Education, is a report to the San Francisco Board of Education, in 649 pages, of a survey of the public school system of that city begun in February, 1916, under the direction of the United States Commissioner of Education. The suggestion of the survey came originally to the Bureau from the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, and, is, again, in this respect one of the significant signs of the times in its appeal to the Bureau of Education as an outside, disinterested body, for the conduct of an expert scrutiny of specific educational conditions. The survey was undertaken by the Bureau on the understanding that it should consist of "a sympathetic inquiry into conditions as they are, with commendation of what is good, and suggestions for improvement and further development." As ultimately constituted, the survey commission was made up of five specialists representing the Bureau, and seven members nominated by the Bureau from a list approved by the San Francisco Board of Education which had agreed to bear the entire expenses of the investigation and the publication of its results.

No more thoroughgoing survey, to use the current term, it is safe to say has yet been made of a public school, or any other school system than is comprised in this report, which has left no stone unturned in its consideration of matters of organization and administration, of buildings and grounds and general equipment, of finance, of subjects of instruction, of the pupils themselves, and of the teaching staff.

The last chapter of the book contains in over twenty pages what is called "a brief digest," made for the convenience of the reader, of the important recommendations of the report, which should appeal widely to all who are actively interested in the sane and productive organization and control of public education. The recommendations

themselves are too long to summarize with any degree of completeness.

The general conclusion arrived at by the commission is that the public schools of San Francisco can not be happily or successfully administered until the present method of administration makes way for a plan of control which will permit the educational forces in the city to do their work properly, efficiently, and well. What such a plan of control in its details should be is convincingly stated by the report.

Association of urban universities A pamphlet, published as of November, 1917, contains an account of the third annual meeting of the Association of Urban Universities, and a complete report of the Committee on Field Work appointed at the 1915 meeting of the Association. Educators conducting work in large cities, it is pointed out, have realized in recent years that the community itself is a great laboratory. Teachers of government have taken their students into municipal bureaus where they have not only studied the conduct of the work, but have been given in many instances opportunities to perform services for the city concerned. Students of the social sciences, too, in the same way, have found in the cities a field unsurpassed for practical work in philanthropic agencies and in surveys of economic, industrial, educational and hygienic conditions, and the list of similar possibilities in connection with the activities of the modern municipality can be readily extended.

Field work, as defined by the Association in its own words, means the activities of students in the performance of tasks of every-day life under actual conditions which may be accepted as directly related to concurrent class work. Field work, it is further explained, means actual participation in a practical task, and visits for purposes of mere observation are, in the sense of the Association, not field work.

The intention in the appointment of the special committee was to ascertain the various methods at present in

use in the conduct of the kind of field work in mind in American universities, colleges and training schools; to prepare a report incorporating the results of this investigation; and to recommend to the Association certain standards and methods in the conduct of such work based upon the results of the inquiry. The present report contains in full the papers read at the third conference of the Association which was largely devoted to the discussion of field work, and the pamphlet from this point of view is an epitome, and an interesting one, of most aspects of this relatively new phase of recognized educational activity.

President By the early death, on October 26, of
Edward K. Graham President Edward K. Graham, of the University of North Carolina, in his forty-third year, a life of great promise has gone out of American education. President Graham succumbed to pneumonia following the epidemic of influenza.

He was graduated from the University of North Carolina in 1898 and subsequently pursued graduate studies at Columbia University. On returning to his *Alma Mater* as teacher and administrative officer he immediately revealed those powers of mind and character which quickly raised him to the presidency of the University and brought him a wide reputation.

The death of President Graham is a sad blow to higher education in America, for it counts but few men of his type and capacity.

Andrew D. White Andrew Dickson White is dead at the ripe age of eighty-six. In his going there passes out of American life one of its most distinguished and representative figures in the latter half of the nineteenth century. In Dr. White's temperament and service there were none of those spectacular features which attract wide public attention out of all proportion to their real importance. His life was one of study, of interpretation and of thoughtful construction in the world of education, of politics and of international relations. Few

men influenced American education more directly and more helpfully than did Dr. White, not only thru his organization and direction of Cornell University, but even more largely thru his understanding and exposition of the essential difference between college work and university work, and his early steps to differentiate the two. He was a profound believer in the influence of personality, and he brought to Cornell University in its early years a distinguished group of American and European scholars who gave very great stimulus to that new undertaking. President Gilman followed this same policy a few years afterward in opening the work of the Johns Hopkins University and with equally excellent results.

In politics Dr. White was a staunch Republican of liberal views and wide vision. He held it part of his duty as a citizen to participate actively in the organized work of the party of his choice, and he was looked up to for counsel and for guidance by his party associates in all parts of the land.

In the field of international relations, Dr. White was a pioneer. His early contact with Russia, with Germany and with other continental peoples brought him a vision of a new and better organized international world long before this vision had become the common property of mankind. His diplomatic career was distinguished and successful, and had it not been for him and his immediate associates, the first Hague Conference of 1899, at which he was Chairman of the American delegation, would have gone down to history as a complete failure. By his tact, his skill, his persuasiveness and by reason of the weight which his name and character carried in Germany he was able to turn a conference which was about to be a failure into a highly creditable success.

One thinks of Dr. White in the same group as President Eliot, President Angell, President Gilman and President Barnard. Forty years ago they constituted a powerful center of constructive educational thought and practise. It would be a great day for American education if among men and women now in middle life an equally significant and constructive group could be named.

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

PUBLISHED MONTHLY

Except July and August

VOLUME LVI

JUNE-DECEMBER

1918

EASTON, PA., AND NEW YORK
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW PUBLISHING COMPANY

PARIS: J. TERQUEM & Co.

LONDON: MESSRS. P. S. KING & SON, ORCHARD HOUSE, 2 & 4 GREAT
SMITH STREET, WESTMINSTER

1918

EDITOR
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

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ESCHENBACH PRINTING COMPANY
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